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Exciting Political Developments

This promises to be a year of political surprises. The "oldest observer" feels that almost anything may happen in view of the extraordinary things that have already happened in presidential politics.

Some months ago it was apparent that Mr. Roosevelt was, from the practical point of view, a candidate for the Republican presidential nomination. His friends and supporters were even then strenuously campaigning for him, although he had not said publicly that he would "under any circumstances" accept a nomination. A situation was created when Mr. Roosevelt felt that he could not maintain silence on that essential point. He accordingly wrote a letter to the seven state executives who had urged him to "speak," stating that he would accept a nomination "if tendered by the national convention." An explanation of his "anti-third term pledge" immediately followed. Mr. Roosevelt was opposed to three consecutive terms for any man, but an ex-President is a private citizen without patronage or any other influence that can be improperly used, and there is therefore no menace to free institutions or to political morality in a third nonconsecutive term.

Mr. Roosevelt announced his "platform" in a speech to the Ohio constitutional convention. His candidacy, he has since declared, is a protest against political and financial privilege, and a vindication of popular rule. He demands

presidential preference primaries, advocates the referendum and initiative in state politics, and the recall of judges in extreme cases only. He stands for purer and greater democracy, for fewer "checks and balances" in our system. By implication the Taft administration and candidacy are thus condemned by him as insufficiently progressive and as too friendly to political and financial privilege.

Not a few of Mr. Roosevelt's supporters are open and emphatic in their condemnation of the Taft administration, calling it reactionary and inefficient. But President Taft is supported by many Republican progressives on the ground that he is advanced enough on all essential points—that, for example, he is a genuine progressive on further tariff revision, on conservation, on the extension of the merit service, on peace and arbitration, on industrial and labor problems, on questions of efficiency and economy in administration. Must a progressive, ask these friends of the President, accept the referendum, the recall, popular reversal of judicial decisions, or be read out of the camp?

The Roosevelt candidacy is more popular in the West than in the East, but what strength it will develop in the Republican convention is a matter for conjecture. Good observers predict the nomination of President Taft on the first ballot, although some of them assert that if we had presidential-preference primary laws in most of the states, instead of in a few only, the Republican rank and file would indorse Mr. Roosevelt decisively.

Whatever happens, the fight will end in the convention. Mr. Roosevelt will not oppose the nominee in any case, and will entertain no "third party" proposal. There is some talk of a "compromise candidate," and Justice Hughes is occasionally mentioned, but it is tolerably manifest that there is little basis for this talk. Senator La Follette will remain a candidate until the convention acts, but his sudden physical collapse took him out of the active contest, for a time, and practically his chances are believed to have disappeared

weeks ago. Had his candidacy made greater headway and had his health and vigor permitted his personal participation in the fighting, Mr. Roosevelt would not have been urged by the anti-Taft insurgents to enter the arena.

In the Democratic field no dramatic changes have occurred. The attacks on Governor Woodrow Wilson have grown more violent, but he is still the leading candidate. Speaker Clark is distinctly stronger than before, but it is not clear that the radical elements will support him. The favorite of the moderates is still Gov. Harmon. Mr. Bryan has been disposed to indorse Wilson or Clark, but his latest declaration has puzzled many. He said that Gov. Shafroth of Colorado would be his first choice. Gov. Shafroth is a radical, but one hardly known to the national Democracy.

The Republican split and the multiplicity of Democratic candidates together operate to divert attention from the issues—if there be any—that divide the great parties. Each of the camps has trouble enough at home.



Are the Referendum and the Initiative "Republican?"

In an Oregon tax case a corporation attempted to persuade the United States Supreme Court that a state which adopts the referendum and initiative, or either of these institutions, and thus confers upon the qualified voters the power of "direct legislation"—that is, the power to initiate or pass upon measures adopted by the legislature—becomes "unrepublican" and may be forced to change the form of its government.

Since several states have adopted the innovations in question, and several more are about to follow their example, the question excited not only lively attention but some apprehension. It was exhaustively argued, pro and con, by able lawyers, and the final decision was for months awaited most anxiously. When the decision came it was something of a surprise to both sides. The court declared

that it was without jurisdiction in the case; that the issue was political, and that Congress, not the judiciary, was the proper tribunal to deal with it. In seating senators and representatives from the states Congress has the opportunity and right to decide whether the states have republican forms of government. The judiciary was without power to upset a state government or require a change in its form.

This, of course settles the question. Congress has repeatedly recognized states having the initiative and referendum as being "republican," and will never reverse itself. But theoretically and logically the question remains an interesting one. What is the view of "reason?" Are the initiative and referendum un-republican or anti-republican? If so, what is the definition of the term republican?

According to the conservative view, republican government is representative government. Direct legislation by the people is hostile to representative government, and grows out of distrust of the latter; therefore is it to be regarded as anti-republican.

As a matter of fact, there is no sound foundation for this view. Any government that is not despotic, monarchical or oligarchical, any "free" or popular government, is republican. The American Constitution was adopted to get rid of monarchy and despotism, not of too much democracy, and when the constitution provided for a republican form of government in the states, it provided against kings, or tyrants, or small cliques of rulers, the essence of republicanism being the sovereignty of the people. To say that when the sovereigns legislate directly, instead of through representatives, they cease to be republican, is to argue an absurd proposition.

There is no obstacle in the federal constitution to the widest use of the initiative, referendum and recall by the states. The wisdom of these reforms the people must determine for themselves; neither Congress nor the courts can

control their decision. The tendency almost everywhere is to decide for rather than against these reforms, representative government having broken down in too many cases.



"Recall of Decisions"

Colonel Roosevelt, who is now a candidate for the Republican presidential nomination, suggested in his speech to the Ohio constitutional convention, a substitute for "the recall of judges"—a measure advocated by many radical progressives. Mr. Roosevelt opposed any general application of the recall to judges, but he admitted that in certain extreme cases, where judges were wholly out of sympathy with the people and their sentiments and needs, and were interpreting constitutions in a narrow, unfair, prejudiced spirit, he would not hesitate to use the recall. However, he preferred what he described as "the recall of decisions." This proposal was original. It had been vaguely foreshadowed in an article contributed by him to *The Outlook*, but few at that time grasped the idea. The Columbus speech and a further explanation at Boston have made the idea clear—though not popular.

What Mr. Roosevelt proposes is a referendum on decisions of the state Supreme Courts where constitutional issues are involved. Here is how the plan would work: A law is declared unconstitutional by a state Supreme Court; the people, or many of them, are disappointed and grieved, as they had worked for the law and deem it necessary and reasonable; they start a movement for a referendum on that decision, and if they secure a prescribed number of signatures, the referendum is held. If the majority of those voting sustains the decision, it stands; if a majority rejects the decision, it is over-ruled and "recalled." The law stands and is enforced subject to action by the federal Supreme Court. Mr. Roosevelt, in meeting various objections, stated that various safeguards might be adopted to prevent hasty

popular judgments and to insure a calm, full discussion of the decision sought to be recalled.

This proposal he regards as less radical than that of the recall of judges. Many progressives assert, on the contrary, that it is far more radical. It has been indorsed in very few influential newspapers—if in any. Moderate and conservative men and organs in all parties have vehemently denounced “the recall of decisions” as spelling anarchy and confusion.

Mr. Roosevelt’s extreme proposal has, however, served to direct further attention to the question of “recalling legalism to justice,” in his own words. Less radical “alternatives” have accordingly been suggested. For instance, amendments providing that laws passed by Congress or state legislatures shall be deemed valid unless the Supreme Courts concerned unanimously or with practical unanimity—say eight judges out of nine or six out of seven—agree that a certain law is unconstitutional. This method would do away with five to four and three to seven decisions on important questions and would invalidate very few laws. Possibly other methods will be suggested as the discussion proceeds. Whatever one may think of this or that plan, the question of the relations between courts and law-making bodies or their constituents has become very acute, and existing arrangements are bound to be improved. That they are not satisfactory even moderate progressives have frankly recognized. Too many wholesome and progressive laws have been annulled by honest but routine-ridden courts.



The Arbitration Treaties as They Stand

The Senate has ratified the treaties of arbitration negotiated by Secretary Knox with England and France, but not without very considerable changes in their text. In the opinion of many the changes emasculated and destroyed the treaties; President Taft stated that he was not sure they meant an advance over existing treaties and that he

could with dignity and propriety submit them to the other contracting parties; the "shelving" of them has been proposed by sincere friends of arbitration.

But there are equally sincere friends of the treaties who think there is enough life and significance left in them to make it worth while to save them. In other words, even with the Senate's omissions and alterations, the treaties, it is contended, mark an advance, a victory for peace and morals. To adopt them, therefore, is to get the proverbial half loaf and hope for the other half at another and more favorable time.

What are the Senate's amendments? One takes the form of a resolution of explanation and interpretation. It reads as follows:

That the Senate advises and consents to the ratification of the said treaty with the understanding, to be made a part of such ratification, that the treaty does not authorize the submission to arbitration of any question which affects the admission of aliens into the United States, or the admission of aliens to the educational institutions of the several states, or the territorial integrity of the several states or of the United States, or concerning the question of the alleged indebtedness or moneyed obligation of any state of the United States, or any question which depends upon or involves the maintenance of the traditional attitude of the United States concerning American questions, commonly described as the Monroe Doctrine, or other purely governmental policy.

These exceptions are not all really exceptions: the matters named, or most of them, are not justiciable in the opinion of President Taft and Secretary Knox; they would never have been submitted to arbitration in any case. But the adoption of the resolution implies distrust and fear: it makes the United States rather ridiculous. That is the ground of the objection to the resolution. Since, however, the treaty still covers many controversies now excluded, controversies of vital and fundamental interest, and of "honor," there would seem to be value in them.

The second of the Senate's changes is the elimination of that paragraph of the article in regard to a joint commission of inquiry which provided that differences as to the arbitrability of questions should be referred to the joint com-

mission. This was a very important feature of the treaties, and it excited much controversy. The elimination of it means that each of the contracting parties will decide for itself what is arbitrable and what not. This is a lame and impotent conclusion, indeed.

However, the more general joint commission feature is retained, and in many ways this would work for peace and sanity. Especially valuable is the provision that a delay of one year may be requested by either party to a dispute and must be granted by the other. A year's delay is fatal to the Jingoos and their yellow friends in journalism in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred. The most exciting issue is reasonably safe when sober second thought has a chance to deal with it. In our day war is made less by real conflicts of national interests or ambitions of designing rulers than by fury, noise, prejudice, alarm fed by unscrupulous or shallow and ignorant agitators.

On the whole, the treaties spell advance and if given effect they can be improved after the presidential election. Party and factional politics had much to do with the action of the Senate in changing them.



Legislative Reference Bureaus

Entirely aside from mistakes or blunders of policy and principle, much legislation, national and state, is well known to be clumsy, inefficient, loose. Bills are frequently drawn by men who have no skill or technical training, who cannot give sound form to their ideas, and who omit important things and insert injurious clauses. "Jokers" are often found in acts, as well as obscure, ambiguous, crude language. Moreover, many acts are passed in ignorance of the existence of similar acts in other states or countries, or in ignorance of the experience of other communities under such acts. In this day of "scientific management" and "efficiency" it is natural that there should have developed a demand for more intelligence, method and skill in the drawing of bills and the enactment of statutes.

This demand has found expression in many of our states. No fewer than fourteen of them have established legislative reference bureaus—the best known being that of Wisconsin. The bureau gathers statistics, searches books and court decisions for relevant data, gets copies of bills and acts, makes arrangements with libraries, and so on. The Wisconsin bureau is prepared to furnish any legislator with the latest available knowledge on the subject in which he is interested.

Representative Nelson of Wisconsin has a bill in the House for the establishment of a legislative reference bureau in the Library of Congress. At a hearing on this bill Ambassador Bryce, Speaker Clark, Representative Mann, the minority leader in the House, and several eminent librarians, educators and other experts appeared to argue for the bill. It is, of course, nonpartisan and nonpolitical. It cannot possibly be objectionable to any friend of efficiency and intelligence in legislation.



Efficiency and Justice

A Society for the Promotion of Efficiency has been organized in this country. Over eight hundred business men, educators, statisticians, economists and others launched the society at a New York meeting. The object is to improve methods of production, management and administration in private, corporate and public affairs. The society will make investigations, employ experts, and point out how waste can be prevented, output increased and efficiency raised with benefit to all concerned.

In some cities private or quasi-public bureaus of efficiency have been functioning for some time and seeking to reorganize governmental offices. The average official has little sympathy with such efforts, but progressive administrators welcome the aid of efficiency experts. There is a terrific amount of waste in public offices; waste means plenty of jobs, patronage, political influence. Taxpayers, on the

other hand, are naturally interested in economy and honest work, and civil service reformers are always emphasizing the need of efficiency and intelligence in public offices and departments.

In corporate and private industry there is much opposition to "efficiency" or scientific management when it spells, or is believed to spell, mere speed, less attention to the human factor, the strenuosity and automatism which make for premature decay of human beings. Trade unions are fighting the "scientific management" movement, but their opposition could be overcome by convincing them that efficiency, justice and good will might be pursued at the same time and reconciled.

Increased product should mean voluntarily increased pay of labor, friendly arrangements for profit-sharing, co-partnership, and similar higher reforms, without which industrial peace and harmony are becoming impossible. The Society for the Promotion of Efficiency should also promote labor peace, conciliation and arbitration, decent standards of living, justice to labor. To a kind or plan of efficiency which means harder work, loss of employment, espionage, etc., labor will offer the most determined opposition. The national society should begin by removing fear and by inviting labor leaders, social reformers and broad-minded economists to co-operate with it and pass on all definite projects.

Already there are progressive and enlightened men in the movement who realize the danger of arousing the hostility of organized labor or the friends of industrial justice and equity. To these efficiency involves humanity. To more and more employers should this nobler conception appeal, for it is the foundation of any tenable position with regard to the future of industry and labor.



Compulsory Accident Compensation

There are those who believe that in this country any law requiring employers to compensate employes for acci-

dents and injuries would be unconstitutional. The New York Court of Appeals held in a case which arose under a statute that covered hazardous trades only, that provision for "compulsory compensation" amounts to the taking of employers' property without due process of law.

But this view has been criticised and rejected by many lawyers and judges. All over the world accidents and injuries in industry—when not caused by wilful negligence—are being made a direct charge upon industry. This is just and necessary, for to place the burden on labor is to breed pauperism and ill will. Compulsory compensation is, of course, in the long run paid by the consumers—that is, by society as a whole.

The federal commission on employers' liability and workmen's compensation, which was appointed by the President to consider the subject, reported in favor of compulsory compensation in the field of interstate commerce transportation. The report is very advanced and takes the ground that to compel compensation is to protect and promote interstate commerce, and that the guaranty of "due process of law" does not forbid such provision.

A bill accompanied the report and fixed the scale of compensation as follows:

The monthly wages are to be considered as not more than \$100 nor less than \$50 a month, with certain exceptions.

Monthly payments of death benefits are to be made for eight years thus: A widow alone, 40 per cent of the monthly wages; widow and child under sixteen or otherwise dependent, 50 per cent and 10 per cent for each additional child; payments, if the widow dies or remarries within eight years to be continued to the children, if any, for the unexpired period. If no widow or children, 15 per cent to partially dependents, and 20 per cent to one wholly dependent parent, and 40 per cent if both parents are dependent. In the absence of these dependents, provisions are made for brother, sister, grandparent or grandchild as dependents.

Personal injury compensation is made on the basis of 50 per cent of monthly wages for life for permanent total disability and 50 percent during temporary total disability. For loss of an arm, payments are to continue 72 months, a leg 66 months, an eye 30 months, a thumb 13 months. No payments are to be made while the employé is at work at wages 90 per cent of those he received at the time of his injury.

It appears that the railroads now pay about \$10,000,000 a year for loss of life and for injuries suffered by employes. The proposed measure would add \$2,500,000 to that sum, but it would save more by doing away with litigation and lawyers' fees. Compulsory compensation, moreover, would prompt greater care on the part of the railroads and the use of more safety devices. The railroads doubtless would insure themselves or their workmen and pay reasonable rates to accident insurance companies for the service. In the long run they would find the system economical and beneficial. The experience of Europe demonstrates this.

The proposed legislation has been indorsed by the President, by the press and by impartial opinion, and will probably be enacted at this session of Congress. The chairman of the federal commission, Senator Sutherland, is satisfied that the Supreme Court will uphold the measure. That, it may be added, will enable New York to re-enact the compulsory compensation law for hazardous trades which its courts invalidated.



The South Pole Visited and "Annexed"

After Peary's successful expedition to the North Pole the "capture" by some daring and efficient explorer of the South Pole became a certainty and a question of a short time. Exploration is as difficult as ever in the polar regions, but a "dash" is a matter of organization, endurance, skill and—a little luck.

Captain Roald Amundsen of Norway, a brave sailor and explorer, the already famous hero of the Northwest Passage exploit, which took a ship from the Atlantic to the Pacific, reached the South Pole on December 14, 1911, and remained there, with four companions, until the 17th. His expedition had been well organized but hardly equipped for much scientific work. The announcement of this "discovery"—or, more correctly, inspection of a point known and yet unknown—came from Hobart, Tasmania, early in

March, the captain himself sending the news to the civilized world in a picturesque account of which modesty and generosity to his associates were pleasing characteristics. The perils and hardships of the journey were not exaggerated; the cold was declared to have been not unduly severe, and the trip at times almost pleasant and exhilarating. Terrible blizzards were, however, encountered, as well as treacherous ice fields.

Captain Amundsen brought no startling news regarding the character of the region. Theories before held by scientific men were confirmed by him. The North Pole is "ice and snow," constantly shifting ice, for it is a spot in an ocean; the South Pole is in a mountainous area, an antarctic continent, a great plateau over 10,000 feet high. These ice-bound wastes have no value in themselves, although there are those who assert that gold may be found there, as well as coal; but there is satisfaction in the achievements of men like Peary and Amundsen because they answer questions persistently asked by centuries, gratify scientific curiosity and reflect credit on the moral and intellectual qualities of the human race. Moreover, knowledge of polar conditions is useful to meteorologists, as a complete map of the wind movement of the world may become possible with the exploration and study of the poles.

It is announced that Captain Robert F. Scott of the British navy has not yet reached the South Pole. His expedition followed that of Shackleton, also of England, who came within 112 miles of the same pole. It is a better-equipped expedition, and if it has been successful, science should reap more and better results from it than from that of Amundsen.

Has the era of exploration and geographical discovery come to an end, then? many are asking. Has this little globe been thoroughly conquered, mapped, named and described by man? Sir Ernest Shackleton points out that such a notion would be mischievous and absurd. There is plenty of adven-

ture left for brave spirits, plenty of thrill and danger and romance in exploration. He mentions many places and spots which have hardly been visited, much less studied, in Asia and Africa—such as Mongolia, Thibet, Central Russia, most of wild Africa, etc. As for submarine exploration, it is barely begun, and it will tax all the courage and strength men possess. Men of wealth and interest in science and exploration should not hastily conclude that no further expeditions into wild, remote, unknown regions are possible or desirable. On the contrary, what has been done should serve to stimulate activity of explorers. A “dash” or “visit” only whets curiosity and puts questions which must be answered by patient and truly scientific men.



Swiss Referendum on Insurance

In connection with the above-discussed bill it is interesting to note the result of a national referendum in Switzerland on a government bill establishing “universal” sickness and accident insurance for wage-earners, male and female. The bill was adopted by a majority which, considering the character and extent of the opposition thereto, is deemed rather decisive. The vote was 285,000 for and 238,694 against the bill. It appears that the question of sickness and accident insurance has been “in politics” for over two decades in Switzerland, but the final campaign lasted only several months. The chambers of commerce took part in the contest; public meetings were held everywhere; public interest was intense.

The approval of the bill submitted by the government is largely due to the heavy vote for it in the German cantons, whose inhabitants were doubtless influenced by the example of the German empire. In the French cantons the majorities were adverse—in some instances the vote being three to one. The employers objected to the bill because it applies to foreign workmen residing in Switzerland, whose

number is estimated at 200,000, and also because, unlike any other labor insurance system, it insures workmen against accidents occurring when they are not actually at work, but resting or indulging in sport and recreation. Another objection to the bill was that it made accident insurance a state monopoly.

Thus the bill appeared to many to be needlessly radical in some respects and too generous to foreigners in all respects. Swiss workmen, it is said, are not liberally treated by neighboring countries, and Switzerland had no occasion to be so altruistic. That in spite of all such varied attacks the measure received a substantial majority is striking evidence of the progress of the movement toward industrial reform and the improvement of the condition of the toiling masses. The premiums under the Swiss plan are to be paid by the employers and the workmen, the former being responsible for both payments.





IX. Interpreters of American Life*

Benjamin A. Heydrick, A. M.

THE preceding chapters have presented the views of various writers on single aspects of our national life; it remains to consider a small but significant group of books in which an attempt is made to sum up that life as a whole. This has been done by two of our best known university presidents, Dr. Eliot, late of Harvard, and Dr. Butler of Columbia; by two college professors, Dr. Coolidge of Harvard and Dr. van Dyke, late of Princeton; by a well-known student of social problems, Dr. Josiah Strong, author of *Our Country*, and by an ex-President of the United States, Theodore Roosevelt. No men are better able to speak with authority than these. They unite wide knowledge with the habit of meditation, and may fitly be called the interpreters of American life.

As their books were written at different periods, it seems best to take them up in chronological order. The

*See CHAUTAUQUAN for September and October, 1911, for instalments I and II, *The Novel*, November for III, the Short Story, December for IV, the Drama, January, 1912, for V, Poetry, February for VI, Essays, March for VII, Journalism and Humor, April for VIII, Sociology and Efficiency.

**All the books mentioned in this article are protected by copyright, and the extracts are used by special permission of the publishers. Acknowledgement is hereby made as follows:

The Macmillan Company—*The American As He Is*, Nicholas Murray Butler; *The Spirit of America*, Henry van Dyke; *The United States as a World Power*, Archibald C. Coolidge.

G. P. Putnam's Sons—*American Ideals*, Theodore Roosevelt.

The Outlook Company—*The New Nationalism*, Theodore Roosevelt.

Doubleday, Page and Company—*Our Country*, *The New Era*, Josiah Strong.

The Century Company—*American Contributions to Civilization*, Charles W. Eliot.

Houghton, Mifflin Company—*The New American Type*, Henry Dwight Sedgwick.

earliest in the group is Dr. Strong's *Our Country*, written in 1886. It sets forth in a graphic way the extent and resources of our national domain. From these and from our rapid advance in population he draws the following conclusion as to the destiny of America:

There can be no reasonable doubt that North America is to be the home of the Anglo-Saxon, the principal seat of his power, the center of his life and influence. Not only does it constitute seven-elevenths of his possessions, but here his empire is unsevered while the remaining four-elevenths are fragmentary and scattered over the earth. Australia will have a great population; but its disadvantages, as compared with North America, are too manifest to need mention. Our continent has room and resources and climate, it lies in the pathway of the nations, it belongs to the zone of power, and already among Anglo-Saxons, do we lead in population and wealth. Of England, Franklin once wrote: "That pretty island which, compared to America, is but a stepping-stone in a brook, scarce enough of it above water to keep one's shoes dry." England can hardly hope to maintain her relative importance among Anglo-Saxon peoples when her "pretty island" is the home of only one-twentieth part of the race. . . . America is to have the great preponderance of numbers and of wealth, and by the logic of events will follow the scepter of controlling influence.

—*Our Country*.

The control of the Anglo-Saxon race will mean, he says, the control of the world. This control will be marked by a shifting of power within the country from the East to the West.

Beyond a peradventure, the West is to dominate the East. With more than twice the room and resources of the East, the West will have probably twice the population and wealth of the East, together with the superior power and influence which, under popular government accompany them. The West will elect the executive and control legislation. When the center of population crosses the Mississippi, the West will have a majority in the lower house and sooner or later the partition of her great territories, and probably some of the states, will give to the West the control of the Senate. . . . The West will direct the policy of the government, and by virtue of her preponderating population and influence will determine our national character and, therefore, destiny.

—*Our Country*.

Our national perils Dr. Strong enumerates as follows: Immigration, Romanism, Mormonism, intemperance, socialism, wealth, and the problems of the city.

In 1893 Dr. Strong published *The New Era*, a companion volume to *Our Country*. In this he finds that the

peril of wealth has increased. He quotes Thomas G. Shearman as authority for the statement that the average income of the richest hundred Americans cannot be less than \$1,200,000 and probably exceeds \$1,500,000. Dr. Strong goes on to say:

If one hundred workingmen could earn each \$1,000 a year, they would have to work 1,200 or 1,500 years to earn as much as the annual income of these one hundred richest Americans. And if a workingman could earn \$1,000 a day he would have to work until he was 547 years old, and never take a day off, before he could earn as much as some Americans are worth. Mr. Shearman, after having given good reasons for the opinion, says: "It may safely be assumed that 200,000 persons control 70 per cent of the national wealth." That is, three-tenths of one per cent of the population control 70 per cent of the property. In other words, in the distribution of the national wealth, one man in three hundred receives \$70 out of every \$100, and 299 men receive \$30, which if averaged would give them about ten cents each.

The wealth of Croesus was estimated at only \$8,000,000 while there are seventy American estates, according to Mr. Shearman, which average \$35,000,000 each. The nabobs of the later Roman republic became famous for their immense fortunes, but the entire possessions of the richest were not equal to the annual income of at least one American.

—*The New Era.*

As a result of this, he says, we have among us an aristocracy founded upon wealth.

Every nation has its aristocracy. In other lands the aristocracy is one of birth; in ours it is one of wealth. It is useless for us to protest that we are democratic and to plead the leveling character of our institutions. There is among us an aristocracy of recognized power, and that aristocracy is one of wealth.

—*The New Era.*

Discussing the condition of the working classes, Dr. Strong casts a new light upon the causes of the present discontent.

No doubt the condition of the working man has improved, but it by no means follows that he should be any better contented. A savage of the South Sea Islands, being presented with a yard of cloth and a few fish hooks, may be much more satisfied with his lot than a mechanic who owns his home and has all of the necessities and many of the comforts of civilized life. We must take into consideration the widely different standards of living. There has been a change for the better in the circumstances of working men, but there has been a still greater change in the *men themselves*, which is the secret of increasing popular discontent amid improving conditions. . . . Popular power makes popular intelligence a necessity; popular intelligence makes the multiplication of

popular wants inevitable; and the multiplication of popular wants, if more rapid than the improvement of the popular condition, necessarily produces popular discontent. It is quite too late for us to turn back. The multitude have already tasted of the tree of knowledge of good and evil and have become aware of their nakedness. The supplies which cover the bare necessities of life are mere fig-leaves. The masses will never be satisfied until their wants are supplied with the fullness of modern civilization. . . .

Again the workingman feels that he is not sharing equitably in the general prosperity. The spirit of American civilization is eminently progressive. The increase of our population, the springing up of new cities, and the growth of old ones, the extension of our railway and telegraph systems, the increase of our agricultural, manufacturing, and mining products, the development of our natural resources, the accumulation of our national wealth,—all these are simply enormous. . . . In the midst of all this progress the working man feels that he is practically standing still or worse. He sees many belonging to other classes waxing rich, while he is perhaps unable to support his family.

—*The New Era.*

So deep is this discontent and so wide-spread that he sees in it signs of a coming crisis.

Twice before in modern times has there been a deep and wide-spread discontent among the people—once on the eve of the great Reformation of the sixteenth century, and once on the eve of the French Revolution. Certain conditions which appeared just before the former reappeared just before the latter. It is most significant that these same conditions, among the most important of which is popular discontent, have again reappeared. . . . We have seen that popular discontent is deep-seated, that it is not likely to be temporary, that it will be satisfied with nothing less than most important and far-reaching economic and social changes.

—*The New Era.*

Turning from Dr. Strong to Dr. Eliot we pass into a calmer air. His book, *American Contributions to Civilization*, has a peculiar interest for us in that the paper which gives the book its title was an address delivered at Chautauqua on Recognition Day, 1896. He considers our national achievement as a chapter in world-history, and finds that we have made five notable contributions to civilization. These are as follows:

(1). The first and principal contribution is the advance made in the United States, not in theory only, but in practice, toward the abandonment of war as the means of settling disputes between nations, the substitution of discussion and arbitration, and the avoidance of armaments. If the intermittent Indian fighting and the brief contest with the Barbary corsairs be disregarded, the United States have had only four years and a quarter of international war in the one hundred and seven years since the adoption of the

Constitution. Within the same period the United States have been a party to forty-seven arbitrations—being more than half of all that have taken place in the modern world. The questions settled by these arbitrations have been just such as have commonly caused wars, namely questions of boundary, fisheries, damage caused by war or civil disturbance, and injuries to commerce.

(2). In the United States, the great principle of religious toleration is better understood and more firmly established than in any other nation of the earth. It is not only embodied in legislation, but also completely recognized in the habits and customs of good society. Elsewhere it may be a long road from legal to social recognition of religious liberty, as the example of England shows. This recognition alone would mean, to any competent student of history, that the United States had made an unexampled contribution to the reconciliation of just governmental power with just freedom for the individual, inasmuch as the partial establishment of religious toleration has been the main work of civilization during the past four centuries.

(3). The third characteristic contribution which the United States have made to civilization has been the safe development of a manhood suffrage nearly universal. . . . In the first place, American experience has demonstrated the advantages of a gradual approach to universal suffrage over a sudden leap. Universal suffrage is not the first and only means of attaining democratic government; rather it is the ultimate goal of successful democracy. It is not a specific for the cure of all political ills; on the contrary, it may itself easily be the source of great political evils. The people of the United States feel its danger today.

(4). The United States have furnished a demonstration that people belonging to a great variety of races or nations are, under favorable circumstances, fit for political freedom. . . . In the first place it has demonstrated that people who at home have been subject to every sort of aristocratic or despotic or military oppression become within less than a generation serviceable citizens of a republic; and, in the second place, the United States have thus educated to freedom many millions of men.

(5). Another great contribution to civilization made by the United States is the diffusion of material well-being among the population. No country in the world approaches the United States in this respect. It is seen in that diffused elementary education which implants for life a habit of reading, and in the habitual optimism which characterizes the common people. It is seen in the housing of the people and of their domestic animals, in the comparative costliness of their food, clothing, and household furniture, in their implements, vehicles, and means of transportation, and in the substitution, on a prodigious scale, of the work of machinery for the work of men's hands.

—*American Contributions to Civilization.*

But it may be asked, are not the statements in the last paragraphs in conflict with those quoted earlier about the

hard lot of the worker? On this subject Dr. Eliot wisely says:

Newspapers and magazines find it profitable to print minute accounts of the cruelest industrial practices, the most revolting human habitations, and the most depraved modes of life which can anywhere be discovered—in miners' camps, factory villages, or city slums. The evils described are real, though perhaps exaggerated; and the average reader, whose sympathy is moved day after day by some tale of injustice and distress, gradually loses all sense of the proportion of good to evil in the social organization. . . . He tends to forget the great comfortable, contented mass of people in his eager sympathy with some small fraction which is miserable and embittered; and little by little he comes to accept the extreme view that the existing social order is all wrong, although he knows perfectly well that the great majority of people, even in the worst American towns and cities, live comfortably and hopefully, and with as much contentment and gladness as can be expected in people of their rather joyless lineage.

—*American Contributions to Civilization.*

In our journalism Dr. Eliot finds one of the most effective means of social and political reform. He says:

Many people are in the habit of complaining bitterly of the intrusion of the newspaper reporter into every nook and corner of the state, and even into the privacy of home; but in this extreme publicity is really to be found a new means of social, industrial, and governmental reform and progress. As Emerson said, "Light is the best policeman." There are many exaggerations, perversions, and inaccuracies in this publicity; but on the whole it is a beneficent and a new agency for the promotion of the public welfare. . . . For almost all social, industrial, and political evils publicity gives the best hope of reasonable remedy. . . . The newspapers, which are the ordinary instruments of this publicity, are as yet very imperfect instruments, much of their work being done so hastily and so cheaply as to preclude accuracy; but as a means of publicity they visibly improve from decade to decade, and, taken together with the magazines and the controversial pamphlet, they shed more light on the social, industrial and political life of the United States than was ever shed before on the doings and ways of any people.

—*American Contributions to Civilization.*

And finally, Dr. Eliot applies to our institutions the final test: do they produce men and women of a high type? A democracy raises the lower classes, no doubt, but is the proportion of ladies and gentlemen as high as in an aristocratic society? This is his answer:

Forty years ago Emerson said it was a chief felicity of our country that it excelled in women. It excels more and more. Who has not seen in private life American women unsurpassable in grace and graciousness, in serenity and dignity, in effluent gladness and

abounding courtesy? Now, the lady is the consummate fruit of human society at its best. In all the higher walks of American life, there are men whose bearing and aspect at once distinguish them as gentlemen. They have personal force, magnanimity, moderation, and refinement; they are quick to see and to sympathize; they are pure, brave, and firm. . . . On the evidence of my reading and of my personal observation at home and abroad, I fully believe that there is a larger proportion of ladies and gentlemen in the United States than in any other country.

—*American Contributions to Civilization.*

On the whole, Dr. Eliot's judgment is decidedly more favorable than that of Dr. Strong. Is this due to the fact that he takes a wider view, that his judgment is more philosophical? Or is it because his life, as college professor and president, has brought him into contact with the best side of our national life: the eager, ardent youth of good families, the scholars of his faculty, the men of achievement among his trustees? He sees one side of life, Dr. Strong another, and perhaps the truth lies in the union of both views.

President Butler's book, *The American As He Is*, was originally given as a series of lectures at the University of Copenhagen. It is a more comprehensive survey than Dr. Eliot's, covering our political, social and intellectual life. It discusses at some length the causes which make us a united people, in spite of differences in race, in religion, and separation by great distances. One of the chief unifying forces he finds to be the persistence of the Anglo-Saxon impulse. The influence of a common language, "the sense of justice, fair play, and personal liberty which are at the bottom of the English common law," make powerfully for unity. Another cause is the continual migration of our people, as a result of which "it is not unusual to find a family of which the grandparents live in New England, or New York, the parents in the Middle West, and some or all of the children in the Rocky Mountain states, or in Oklahoma or in Texas." A third cause he finds in the great political parties, saying that attachment to party name is stronger here than in any other country, with the possible exception of England. A fourth cause is the great number of voluntary or-

ganizations of national scope, their periodical meetings bringing together men from all parts of the country. And finally the newspapers, providing substantially the same food for reflection to all our people, "assist powerfully in building a common national consciousness."

As a result of these influences, there is a distinctly American type of mind. Its characteristics he enumerates as follows: alertness; fairness and openness; self-reliance and independence; a highly emotional temperament, that responds quickly to a noble idea or a lofty sentiment; an optimism and self-confidence; a high standard of business honor, and a strong religious faith. The single unfavorable trait which he assigns to us is a lack of respect for law, due in part to our habit of over-legislation.

The best examples of the American type are found, he says, in the Middle West, particularly in the towns and small cities.

If one were to select a restricted area in which to study American life and American characteristics, he would do best to choose northern Illinois and the adjacent parts of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. Here the soil is rich, the settlements are old enough to have an aspect of comfort and order, the population is well-to-do, there is little or no extreme poverty, the public schools are of the best, churches abound, and are strong in influence, and the average of intelligence and of intellectual interest is very high. . . . The population read the best books, and take in the best magazines, reviews and weekly journals. The boys and girls are sent to college almost as a matter of course, usually in the tax-supported state universities. There is little vice, and less crime, and both the manners and morals of the people are excellent.

—*The American As He Is.*

The difference between East and West he finds is but slight: it is a difference in modes of expression rather than in modes of thought.

As to the speech of Americans, President Butler's opinion is in marked contrast with that of Henry James, quoted earlier.

Despite their numbers and their wide geographical distribution, their English speech is more uniform than that of the inhabitants of England itself. No differences of intonation, accent, or vocabulary in the United States are so great as those between the Yorkshireman and the Cornishman, or between the dwellers in Westmore-

land and those in Devon. Many so-called Americanisms are only survivals of sixteenth and seventeenth century English usages which have disappeared in the mother country. The exaggerated drawl of many Englishmen is as far from being good English as is the nasal twang of the uncultivated American. The purity of the language must rest with the educated classes who use the English speech and with the makers of its literature, and it is as safe on one side of the Atlantic as on the other.

—*The American As He Is.*

On the subject of our devotion to money-getting Dr. Butler speaks in no uncertain terms:

The American is generally supposed by Europeans and by not a few Americans who are but superficial observers of their own people, to be given over to money-getting, and to be enamoured of money for its own sake. Nothing could be farther from the fact. The American cares much less for money than the Frenchman, less even than the Englishman or the German. His main ambition is successful self-expression, the putting forth of all his powers in order to gain a desired end, or to accomplish a difficult purpose. The money that comes with success of this kind the American takes gladly as the outward and visible sign and measure of what he has done. But the money itself he treats as a toy, or,—if of finer moral calibre—as a trust, to be in some way administered for the public good, after making provision for his own family. This is the reason of the constant stream of benefactions, great and small in the United States.

—*The American As He Is.*

He finds America still the land of opportunity, saying that the men who occupy the most important positions in the United States to-day have worked themselves up from humble beginnings:

The most distinguished judges began life as struggling barristers with their own way to make. Nineteen of the men who today direct the great transportation systems of the country, and who command very large salaries, were, in every case, a short generation ago, wage-earners of the humblest kind in the service of one or another of the railroad companies. This unlimited opportunity to rise, and to, rise young, acts as a perpetual stimulus to the American youth, and spurs him on to master some calling or career.

—*The American As He Is.*

Even the trusts come in for their share of commendation:

The organization of the large corporations popularly but quite improperly known as trusts, has given a strong impetus to business efficiency in America. They have greatly reduced waste in production, and they have increased productiveness while generally reducing the price of the commodities in which they deal. They have opened new and much more lucrative avenues of employment to men of capacity and zeal. They have excited the animosity of the small because they are big, and they have incurred widespread public







Nicholas Murray Butler



Professor Archibald Cary Coolidge, author of "The United States
as a World Power"



Josiah Strong, author of "Our Country." Courtesy of the Baker and Taylor Company



Theodore Roosevelt
(Copyright by Pach Brothers)



hostility because their managers have sometimes interfered in matters of legislation, or have tried to secure special and unfair advantages from the common carriers. These abuses, however, are now correcting themselves, or are being corrected, and public sentiment in regard to the large corporations may reasonably be expected to change.

—*The American As He Is.*

The dangers of American life appear to him as few and remote. Immigration may increase beyond our power of assimilation; a popular demagogue may lead us over a political precipice; the spirit of lawlessness may carry us too far,—these things are possible but not imminent.

Taken as a whole, this picture of American life and character is certainly flattering to the sitter. Are we as good looking as that? we say, and half believe the photograph is nearer the truth than our mirror.

As President Butler explained our country to the Danes, Henry van Dyke explained it to the French. *The Spirit of America* was part of a course of lectures delivered at the University of Paris in 1908 and '09. It is even fuller in its discussion than Dr. Butler's work, and only the main points can be given here. He finds the chief traits of American character to be these five: the instinct of self-reliance, the love of fair play, the energetic will, the desire of order, the ambition of self-development. To these he adds four temperamental traits: a strong religious feeling, a sincere love of nature, a vivid sense of humor, and a deep sentiment of humanity. It is interesting to note that most of these appear in the preceding list; a notable addition is the sense of humor—one wonders how President Butler came to omit that. Dr. van Dyke's comment upon American humor is especially good:

It is not irreverent toward the realities. But for the conventionalities, the absurdities, the pomposities of life, it has a habit of friendly satire and good tempered railery. It is not like the French wit, brilliant and pointed. It is not like the English fun, in which practical joking plays so large a part. It is not like the German joke, which announces its arrival with the sound of a trumpet. It usually wears rather a sober face and speaks with a quiet voice. It delights in exposing pretensions by gravely carrying them to the point of wild extravagance. It finds its material in subjects which

are laughable, but not odious; and in people who are ridiculous, but not hateful.

—*The Spirit of America.*

The statement that Americans have a strong desire for order appears to conflict with President Butler's lack of respect for law. Dr. van Dyke illustrates his statement by citing the behavior of American crowds, and the strong tendency to organize societies and appoint committees for all sorts of purposes. He finds in this an evidence of a social spirit that seeks its ends in an orderly way, which is not at all the same thing as compliance with legislative edicts. Dr. van Dyke's description of the American spirit of self-reliance deserves quotation:

Within the seemingly complicated politics of nation, state and town, each typical American is a person who likes to take care of himself, to have his own way, to manage his own affairs. He is not inclined to rely upon the state for aid and comfort. He wants not as much government as possible, but as little. He dislikes interference. Sometimes he resents control. He is an individual, a person, and he feels very strongly that personal freedom is what he most needs, and that he is able to make good use of a large amount of it.

—*The Spirit of America.*

In the discussion of the drawbacks or the weaknesses of the American type Dr. van Dyke is perfectly candid. Our intensity has cost us heavily. The home as an institution, as the center of life, is being crowded out a little, children and parents are growing too busy for it. Conversation is a rare accomplishment among us: the American can debate, and talk business, but he does not converse well.

Popular recreations and amusements, pleasures of the simpler kind such as are shared by masses of people on public holidays, do not seem to afford as much relaxation and refreshment in America as they do in Germany or France. Children do not take as much part in them. There is an air of effort about them, as if the minds of the people were not quite free from care. The Englishman is said to take his pleasures sadly. The American is apt to take his strenuously. . . . I think it true that a strong will-power directed chiefly to industrial success has had a hardening effect upon the general tone of life.

—*The Spirit of America.*

Our strenuous life has other drawbacks:

In laying such a heavy stress upon the value of action it is likely to overlook the part played by reflection, by meditation, by

tranquil consideration, in a sane and well-rounded character. The critical faculty is not that in which Americans excel. By this I do not mean to say that they do not find fault. They do, and often with vigor, and acerbity. But fault-finding is not criticism, in the true sense of the word. Criticism is a disinterested effort to see things as they really are, to understand their causes, their relations, their effects. . . . Clear, intelligent, thorough-going, well-balanced critics are not much in evidence in the United States; first, because the genius of the country does not tend to produce them; and second, because the taste of the people does not incline to listen to them.

—*The Spirit of America.*

An interesting observation is that upon the extent to which the native American stock still predominates in national affairs. Dr. van Dyke cites statistics to show that of our successful men, the leaders in business, politics, professions, art and science, over 86 per cent are native Americans. "The native stock has led and still leads America."

Upon our schools he comments as follows:

They are immensely democratic. They are stronger in awakening the mind than in training it. They do more to stimulate quick perception than to cultivate sound judgment and correct taste. Their principles are always good, their manners sometimes. "Universal knowledge is their foible; activity is their temperament, energy and sincerity are their virtues; superficiality is their defect.

—*The Spirit of America.*

On the whole Dr. van Dyke's book gives the impression of a sincere attempt to set forth the salient features of our national life.

A third American who explained his country to a foreign nation was Professor A. C. Coolidge of Harvard, who lectured at the Sorbonne in 1906-07, on *The United States as a World Power*. As the title suggests, his book deals with our country primarily in its political aspects, yet other sides are not neglected. He names the chief American traits as follows: optimism, due to the consciousness of successful achievement; self-confidence; idealism; a strain of lawlessness, due to intense individualism; an impatience of precedent, and an impatience of careful precautions. This list makes a notable addition to the qualities given by others: idealism, although this is suggested by Dr. Butler in his explanation of the emotional temperament.

The chief importance of Professor Coolidge's book is its treatment of the Spanish American War, and its effect upon our national aims and ideals. The change wrought is thus described:

Early in the year 1901, a foreign ambassador at Washington remarked in the course of conversation that, although he had been in America only a short time, he had seen two different countries,—the United States before the war with Spain, and the United States since the war with Spain. This was a picturesque way of expressing the truth, now generally accepted, that the war of 1898 was a turning-point in the history of the American republic. . . . The change was equally decisive in the consciousness of the Americans themselves. The war aroused within them a feeling of strength which had until then been latent. It opened their eyes to new horizons, suggested new outlets for their energies, and made them confident that they could deal with problems which never before had attracted their attention. They had always been proud of their country,—aggressively so, foreigners thought,—but they had regarded it as something different from the others, and leading its own life apart. Now, all at once, they were willing to give up their isolation and plunge into the fray. They felt that the day had come when they were called upon to play a part in the broader affairs of mankind even at the cost of sacrificing some of their cherished ideals. They were indeed, unable, as well as unwilling, to return to their earlier point of view. Full of joyous self-reliance, they were prepared to meet all the difficulties and to accept all the burdens of their new position.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

Dr. Coolidge discusses at length the attitude of the American people, from the spirit of humanity which first provoked interference to save Cuba, the totally unexpected acquisition of the Philippines, the embarrassment of our situation in sending troops to put down the movement for Filipino independence, and the final acceptance of the situation, not without some compromise with our early ideals. And the result is not only a changed attitude on the part of Americans, but a change in the attitude of other nations toward us.

During most of the nineteenth century the United States had enjoyed a remarkable popularity abroad. Many Englishmen were well disposed toward it because it was inhabited by their kin: Frenchmen were proud of it because they had assisted in its creation; Russia was a traditional friend; liberals all over Europe sympathized with its democratic institutions; zealous Roman Catholics were pleased with flourishing condition of their church across the water. . . . The fame of the country's wealth and prosperity, of the ingenuity and practical abilities of its inhabitants, and es-

pecially of their eagerness to make money, was wide-spread. But in the great game of international politics they took little part. European statesmen could usually leave them out of their reckonings. . . . All this was changed by the Spanish war. Continental Europe, without defending Spanish misgovernment in Cuba, regarded the action of the Americans as brutal aggression against a smaller nation. How could it be pleased with the cry, so often raised across the sea, that European rule in the western hemisphere ought to be brought to an end? But the Americans did more than expel the Spaniards from Cuba and Porto Rico: they proved that they possessed a most efficient modern fleet, they crossed the Pacific and established themselves in the Far East, they threatened to send ships to attack Spain in her own waters. It was evident that they had assumed a new position among nations; that henceforth they would have to be counted with as one of the chief forces in international affairs. . . . The former easy popularity of the United States was gone, probably never to return. Some idealists mournfully declared that what the Union had gained in political importance it had lost in moral greatness; that it had forfeited its real eminence and was now only one more huge, aggressive, selfish power. Be this as it may, its situation, for better or for worse, was radically changed in the eyes of the outside world.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

As to the results of our rule in new possessions, Professor Coolidge comments as follows:

It is still too early to sum up the results of American rule in the last eight years. In many ways it has been a disappointment, for up to the present time it has brought neither content nor general prosperity. Serious mistakes have been made in details. Taxation is heavy, and there is room for criticism about the way in which some of the money has been spent. It seems, too, as if a common mistake in French colonization had been repeated in creating an unnecessarily elaborate administrative machine. The salaries paid to the American officials appear unwarrantably high to the natives, who flatter themselves that they could do as well for much lower pay. Unfortunately this grievance is unavoidable; if we admit that Americans are needed at all, we must also admit that what is wanted is the best, and that these can only be obtained by a remuneration which shall be some sort of recompense for the sacrifices demanded by a life in the distant tropics. . . . Criticise as one may the details of the present policy, no impartial observer will deny that since 1898 the Americans have accomplished a great deal in their task of transforming the islands. Improved means of communication, public works of all kinds, modern sanitation, justice, public security, honest and efficient government, and a system of general education form a record to be proud of.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

Of the problems of Americans at home, Professor Coolidge regards the race question as the most serious. The negro problem has new and threatening aspects:

In the South, at the present time, the relations between the

two races are, to say the least, very unsatisfactory,—worse, perhaps, than they were twenty years ago. Among the negroes, there exists a sullen resentment at the loss of their political rights, as well as at the increasing tendency to segregate them in the public conveyances, and, in general, to impress upon them unmistakably that they belong to a lower order of mankind. Among the whites, the fear of negro rule has grown into a perfect frenzy of wrath against whatever appears like an assertion on the part of the colored population of political or of social equality. Even their education is regarded with a suspicion that reminds one of the days of slavery, and the situation with regard to lynching is terrible. When the whites in country districts get to feel that their women, unless accompanied are not safe against assault a few hundred yards from their own homes, their exasperation makes them capable of any act of savagery. An epidemic of social crime on the one hand has engendered an epidemic of wild, lawless punishment on the other, leaving both sides more embittered than ever.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

And out of this has grown a political situation which is at variance with our national ideals and with our constitution:

Experience since the Civil War has proved that the southern whites will go to almost any lengths rather than submit to "black domination." That the South, with its inherited slave-holding traditions, is an absolute unit on this point may not be surprising. What is surprising is that within the lifetime of thousands of men who fought for the freedom of the slaves, the victorious North has accepted the Southern view to such a degree that the dominant Republican party has submitted with very little murmuring, to a series of laws on the part of the Southern States designed to evade, if they do not actually violate, the amendments to the Constitution guaranteeing equality to the negro.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

Thus here, as in the Philippines, we are confronted with a direct contradiction between our national ideals and our national practice. On the one side are the principles of liberty and equality, principles established by the Declaration of Independence, and secured by the Constitution, principles which for a century had been regarded as a sacred thing, as our most precious inheritance. On the other side, our action in denying these rights to the Filipino, the Porto Rican and the negro, place us as a nation in the unpleasant position of having to choose between modifying our principles, or else standing convicted of national hypocrisy.

And our race prejudice is not confined to the negro. The anti-Chinese and anti-Japanese feeling is strong enough

to control the action of Congress. The anti-Jewish feeling is a more recent thing.

There is in the United States an anti-Semitic feeling, new in its present intensity, and, as in France, quite at variance with the traditions of two generations ago. In most American cities few or no outspoken Jews will be found in fashionable society; and even in the universities in which they are at all numerous, they are left much to themselves by the other students. The subject is rather carefully avoided by the newspapers; for the American Jews are already a power to be feared, and quick to take offense.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

On the subject of our economic position, Professor Coolidge shows that we are the capitalists of the world:

The economic progress of the United States in the last few years has inevitably influenced the national policy in various ways, and will continue to do so. Until a short time ago the country belonged to the debtor rather than to the creditor class of states. It was well off, but it had no investments of consequence beyond its borders, and it owed the development of its resources in part to foreign capital. Today the situation is radically different: the Americans have bought back much of their paper formerly held abroad, and, though they are continually borrowing afresh in order to carry out the countless undertakings in which they are engaged, they are no longer in the same situation as before. There is a distinction between the poor man who has to ask for a loan from a well-to-do neighbor in order to set his business going, and the wealthy financier who invites others to take shares in a profitable enterprise; and the United States is now in the position of the latter. It still needs foreign capital, but the Americans are themselves the greatest capitalists in the world.

—*The United States as a World Power.*

The significance of this book, then, lies in its presentation of the fact that our national ideals have been modified in practice, first by the virtual disfranchisement of the negro in the South, and second by the result of the Spanish-American War, leading to a policy of imperialism rather than of democracy.

Theodore Roosevelt has set forth his views upon our national life in two volumes, *American Ideals* and *The New Nationalism*. He does not attempt to enumerate the characteristics of the American, indeed, there is a notable absence of broad generalization in these books. Certain specific problems, however, are treated with directness. The dangers of American life he states as follows:

If I were asked to name the three influences which I thought

were most dangerous to the perpetuity of American institutions, I should name corruption in business and politics alike; lawless violence, and mendacity, especially when used in connection with slander.

—*The New Nationalism.*

The danger from lawless violence, he says, we most often have to face from among the people who have least of the world's goods; the danger of corruption, from the people who have the most of the world's goods. Of slander he says:

No greater harm can be done to the body politic than by those men who, through reckless and indiscriminate accusation of good men and bad men, honest men and dishonest men alike, finally so hopelessly puzzle the public that they do not believe that any man in public life is entirely straight; while, on the other hand, they lose all indignation against the man who really is crooked.

—*The New Nationalism.*

A fault in our national life he finds to be the political indifference of many citizens:

The man who is content to let politics go from bad to worse, jesting at the corruption of politicians, the man who is content to see the maladministration of justice without an immediate and resolute effort to reform it, is shirking his duty and is preparing the way for infinite woe in the future. Hard, brutal indifference to the right, and an equally brutal shortsightedness as to the inevitable results of corruption and injustice, are baleful beyond measure; and yet they are characteristic of a great many Americans who think themselves perfectly respectable, and who are considered thriving by their easy-going fellow-citizens.

—*American Ideals.*

The reason why the good citizen must go into politics is that the special interests must be driven out.

Our government, national and state must be freed from the sinister influence, or control of special interests. Exactly as the special interests of cotton and slavery threatened our political integrity before the Civil War, so now the great special business interests too often control and corrupt the men and methods of government for their own profit. We must drive the special interests out of politics. That is one of our tasks today.

Every special interest is entitled to justice, but not one is entitled to a vote in Congress, to a voice on the bench, or to representation in any public office.

—*American Ideals.*

The Panama Canal, a subject passed over by most writers whom we have been considering, he regards as of the greatest importance:

If a man of intelligence who had never left the country asked me whether I would advise him to make a short trip to Europe or a trip to the Panama Canal, I would without hesitation advise

him to go to the Panama Canal. He would there see in operation the completing of one of the great achievements of modern times. Colonel Goethals, and the men working under him, are rendering a service to this country which can only be paralleled in our past history by some of the services rendered in certain wars. No feat of the kind or of anything like the magnitude has ever been successfully carried out, and hardly ever been attempted. No other nation has to its credit a task of such magnitude, of such importance, as we will have three years hence when that canal is completed.

—*The New Nationalism.*

In general, Mr. Roosevelt offers less of interpretation than the other writers. Interpretation, indeed, is not his purpose; he aims to tell us what we should do rather than to analyze our characteristics. The point of view is not that of the philosopher but of the practical man.

Quite in contrast with this is the attitude of Henry D. Sedgwick, author of *The New American Type*. Seeing a gallery of portraits of distinguished Americans, he proceeds to draw inferences as to the characteristics of our people. Our women of fashion as Sargent portrays them, are thus described:

The obvious qualities in his portraits are disquiet, lack of equilibrium, absence of principle; a general sense of migrating tenants, of distrainer and replevin, of a mind unoccupied by the rightful heirs, as if the home of principle and dogma had been transformed into an inn for wayfarers. Sargent's women are more marked than his men; women, as physically more delicate, are the first to reveal the strain of physical and psychical maladjustment. The thin spirit of life shivers pathetically in its "fleshly dress," and yet in the intensity of its eagerness it is all unconscious of its spiritual fidgeting on finding itself astray—no path, no blazings, the old forgotten, the new not formed, these are signs that accompany the birth and development of a new species. . . . The American woman's body, too slight for a rich animal life, too frail for deep maternal feelings, seems a kind of temporary makeshift, as if life were a hasty and probably futile experience.

—*The New American Type.*

The portraits of men suggest that in them the new type is more completely attained, and that as a type it has serious shortcomings:

These male portraits indicate that the logical, the intellectual, the imaginative, the romantic faculties have been discarded and shaken off, doubtless because they did not tend to procure the success coveted by the nascent variety; and, in their stead, keen, exceedingly simple powers of vision and action are developing. This type is found in Sargent, Frank, Hall, Bonnat, Chase, Richard Hall.

Perhaps the best example is the portrait entitled Mr. Daniel Lamont by Zorn. Too great stress cannot be laid on the impression we make upon quick-sighted foreigners. This portrait represents a shrewd, prompt, quick, keen, compact man, well, almost brilliantly, equipped for dealing with the immediate present; he has the morale of the tennis player, concentration, utter absorption, in volley and take. Of faculties needful to deal with the remote imagination, logic, intellect, faith—there is no trace. Craft, the power that deals with a few facts close at hand, is depicted in abundance; so are promptitude and vigor; reason, the power that deals with many facts, remote, recalcitrant, which require the mind to hold many pictured combinations at once or in quick succession,—is not there.

—*The New American Type.*

Of course the obvious answer to such a criticism is that these portraits represent not typical Americans but a small class. The women whom Sargent paints are leaders of fashionable society; the men are the great captains of industry. Neither these men nor these women represent the average American.

The conflict between our theory and our practices is discussed at some length by Mr. Sedgwick:

The American believes that all men are born free and equal, that they possess an inalienable right to pursue their own happiness; but if one questions one's casual neighbors one will find a contradiction between their professed beliefs and their real beliefs. They agree that men ought to be free: but the employer says his workmen shall not combine in trades unions, and the workman says all workmen in his trade must belong to the union. They agree that all men are equal; but the man of fashion thinks there is a marked inequality between those whose fathers are rich and those whose fathers are poor; the Christian sees an inequality between himself and a Jew; the Southerner between himself and a negro; the man of European birth between himself and an Asiatic. Prosperous people in general believe their fellow-men have an inalienable right to seek happiness, but deny them the right to seek happiness in socialism.

We are none the less honest,—we are a people with a native love of phrases. Phraseology is that form of art which we understand the best. We cling to a phrase made by one of our patriot fathers, a phrase of the best periods,—and no more dream of parting with it because it does not represent any living idea than a man would part with a Gainsborough portrait of his great-great-grandfather. It is like an ancestral chair in the parlor, not to be sat upon.

—*The New American Type.*

He holds that our pre-occupation with industrial life has made us strong in that direction but weak in every other. The spiritual element in our life he finds but feeble, for we have tried to make our spiritual life a thing apart, quite separate from the ordinary business of living. Our art has

suffered, our poetry lacks passion, our morality is one-sided. "We have been swept off our feet by the brilliant success of our industrial civilization, and blinded by vanity, we enumerate the list of our exports, we measure the swelling tide of our material prosperity, but we do not stop here to repeat to ourselves the names of other things."

It is time to draw together the scattered threads of this article, and of earlier ones, to make if possible a summary of the various criticisms upon our national life. These may be arranged in three groups, dealing respectively with the conditions of American life; with our national problems, and with the traits of the typical American.

Concerning political conditions, there is substantial agreement as to the existence of wide-spread corruption, which extends from the petty "graft" of local politicians to the control of legislatures and of members of the United States Senate. Equally conclusive is the testimony that within the past decade there has been a marked improvement in conditions, due to an arousing of the civic conscience.

Industrially our people are more prosperous than any other in the world, yet this prosperity is very unequally distributed, and large groups of workers receive less than a living wage. This is particularly true of women, and to this must be added the statement that child labor has increased to an alarming extent. The growing frequency of strikes, and the bitterness with which such contests are waged, are evidence of an increasing hostility between labor and capital, an ominous sign.

Intellectually, we have established a vast public school system, opened libraries everywhere, and pour forth floods of periodical literature, yet the number of Americans who have made intellectual contributions of the first rank is not great.

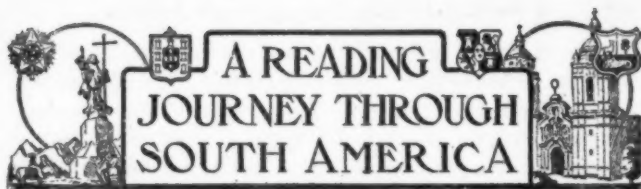
Socially, we have in this country an aristocracy based upon wealth, which in its higher circles is quite as worldly

and as selfish as aristocracy elsewhere, and somewhat more ostentatious.

Of our national problems the negro question appears to be the most serious, nor has any wholly satisfactory solution yet been offered. The problem of immigration is far easier to regulate, yet the fact that immigration has steadily grown larger in volume and less desirable in kind, without any appreciable check through legislation, leads to the fear that selfish interests may make this a serious menace. The problem of great fortunes means that tremendous power is lodged in the hands of a few men: it must be granted that the cases in which this power has been abused are but few. The problems of our cities are due in part to the large foreign population, in part to municipal misgovernment, and to bad industrial conditions, so they are but parts of larger problems.

The characteristics of the average American, as reported by our critics, are as follows: In temperament, he is alert, nervous, excitable and energetic; in manner he is frank and open rather than polished; in disposition he is self-confident, self-reliant, and optimistic. He has a strong ambition, and a hunger for knowledge. His dealings with men are marked by a love of fair play; toward women he shows a high chivalry. He is good-natured, tolerant, with a quick sympathy for the unfortunate, and a deep religious feeling. He has a strong sense of humor, and a generosity which is not bounded by race or sect. His faults are an impatience of precedent, a lack of respect for law, and a tendency to attach too much importance to material success, forgetting those things which feed the spirit.

And yet the last word cannot be said, the portrait cannot be finished, for the features of the sitter are slowly, subtly changing even while they are being recorded. For the America of today is not the America of yesterday, and in that fact lies both our fear and our hope.



IX. Venezuela and the Guianas*

Harry Weston VanDyke†
VENEZUELA.

AT the end of his "swing around the circle" of South American countries (having begun with Brazil), the traveller comes to what is probably the most interesting of all—the United States of Venezuela—the huge republic that bulges out into the northernmost nub of the continent, where the terminal ranges of the Andes turn eastward to meet the great Guiana Highlands and form those high-flung ramparts that protect the fertile, low-lying Amazon plains from the Atlantic. This black, mountainous front runs along the Caribbean for some fifteen hundred miles, broken at intervals, however, where the lovely blue of the tropical sea sweeps inland to meet the bright green of some great river basin.

Southward, Venezuela spreads down over an irregularly shaped territory extending from 12 degrees north latitude to the equator. Her varied topography produces almost every change of climate, from the cold of the verdure-covered mountains—some of whose peaks reach high enough

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Previous instalments of this series are "Discovery and Conquest" in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for September, 1911, "Colonial Period and War of Independence," October, 1911, "Brazil," November, 1911, "Argentina," December, 1911, "Uruguay, Paraguay, and Bolivia," January, 1912, "Peru," February, 1912, "Chile," March, 1912, "Ecuador and Colombia," April, 1912. The series ends with this issue.

†Member of the Bar of Washington, D. C., and Licenciado in Spanish Law. Recommended by and co-operating with the Pan-American Union, Hon. John Barrett, Director General.

to earn the title of *nevada*—down through the temperate weather of the *llanos*, or rolling plains that slope off into the great Orinoco basins, where wheat, corn and cattle abound, and the country's great staples, coffee, cacao, sugar, cotton and tobacco are grown, to the hot Orinoco jungles that trail off to the south, where rubber trees luxuriate without cultivation. More than half of Venezuela's territory may be ignored from the commercial standpoint of to-day, for it is either Alaskan or Amazonian and can be reserved for later needs of the human family when, as Humboldt prophesied, the Amazon valley will become the feeding ground of mankind.

No description has ever done justice to the beauties of Venezuela's landscape of mountain and valley and mighty rivers, of warm green pastures and blue skies, and the mystic shimmering white of an occasional snow-capped peak. The country that so appeals to the traveller's interest is nearly six hundred thousand square miles in area and could include within its confines the states of Iowa, Wisconsin, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois and Ohio. Its rocky coast saw the beginning of the European invasion of the new world; Columbus, Vespucci and Ojeda touched here, the last named giving the country its name. Cumaná, in the middle east of the coast line is the oldest European settlement in America; it was in its old church that Las Casas preached. This saintly priest was the Indians' only friend in the early days of Spanish devastation, but, with regret be it said, he was also the reputed father of African slavery in the new world. The white-walled cities that huddle among the mountains on the coast formed the Spanish Main of romance. Venezuela was the birthplace of the resistance to Spain's oppression of her colonies, and of Miranda, Bolívar, Sucre and the fiery young patriot, Yañez—the men who led the van of that resistance. Through the country flows one of the world's greatest rivers, the Orinoco, with four thousand miles of navigable waters. The vast productiveness of the country



and its stores of mineral wealth, are sufficient to sustain twenty times its present population of two millions and a half. And, finally, Venezuela is nearer to us than any country in South America.

A most agreeable route for the traveller leaving Colombian ports for Venezuela, is by the steamers which zigzag around the Caribbean Sea for ten days or more on the way to Europe, and touch at many forgotten ports of the Spanish Main before reaching La Guayra, the port of Caracas.

Immediately after leaving Colombian waters and rounding the Guajira peninsula, the ship enters the great Gulf of Maracaibo, one hundred and fifty miles in extent from east to west, and sixty miles from north to south. Passing along in through a narrow strait, the almost equally large Lake of Maracaibo swells out before the traveller. This great body of water drains an extensive basin lying between two terminal spurs of the Andes—the Sierra de Parija and the Sierra Mérida—and into it flow many rivers fed by the surrounding mountains. Inside, on the east bank of the strait, lies the city of Maracaibo, now one of the most important centers on the north coast, for here is shipped the produce of the vast fertile region of western Venezuela—coffee, cacao, tobacco, castor bean, hard wood timber and dye woods. Much of the produce of the eastern slope of Colombia also finds its way to Europe and the States through this port; fully half of what is known in our markets as “Maracaibo coffee” is really a Colombian product.

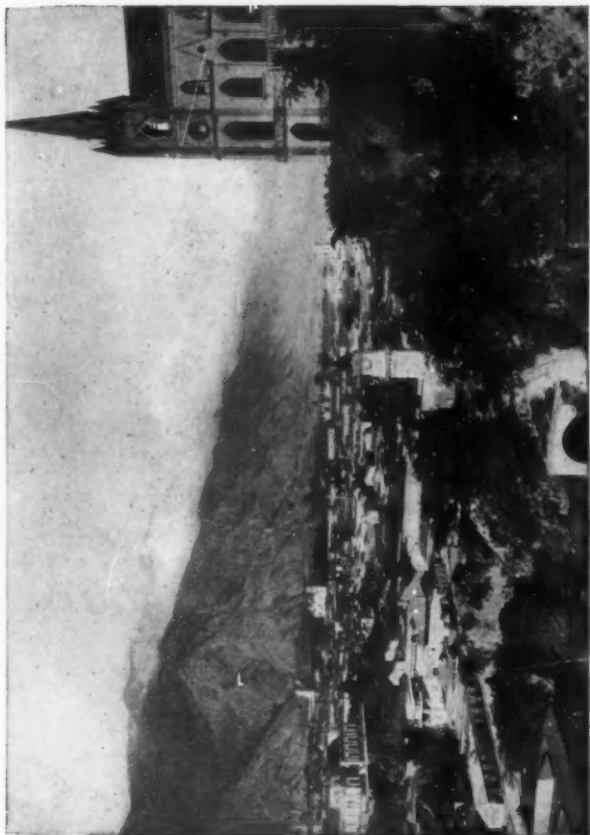
The tropical scenery of the plains sloping down to the Lake and the surrounding mountains with their suggestion of snowy freshness, make the setting of this port one of the most interesting on the continent. A dozen or more of the peaks in the Mérida range are snow-capped and two of them—Concha and Coluna—rise to a height of over fifteen thousand feet. Years ago a passing visitor to Maracaibo, mistaking the discomforts of the humidity and heat for general dissolution, pronounced the place “the graveyard of



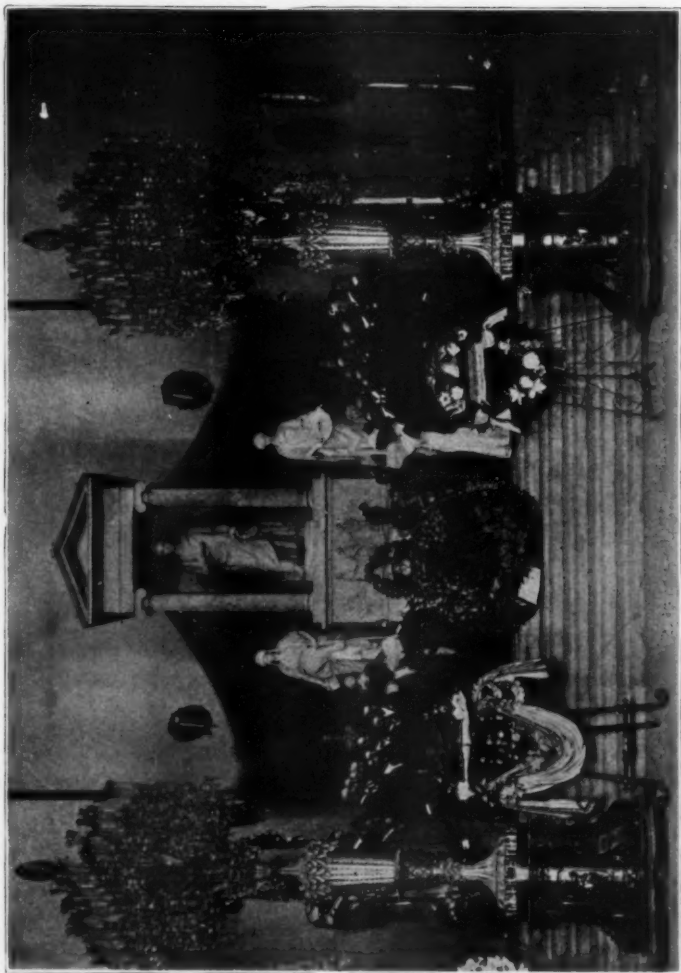
The Cathedral, Caracas. This structure was begun in 1641, and for many years contained the remains of the Great Liberator



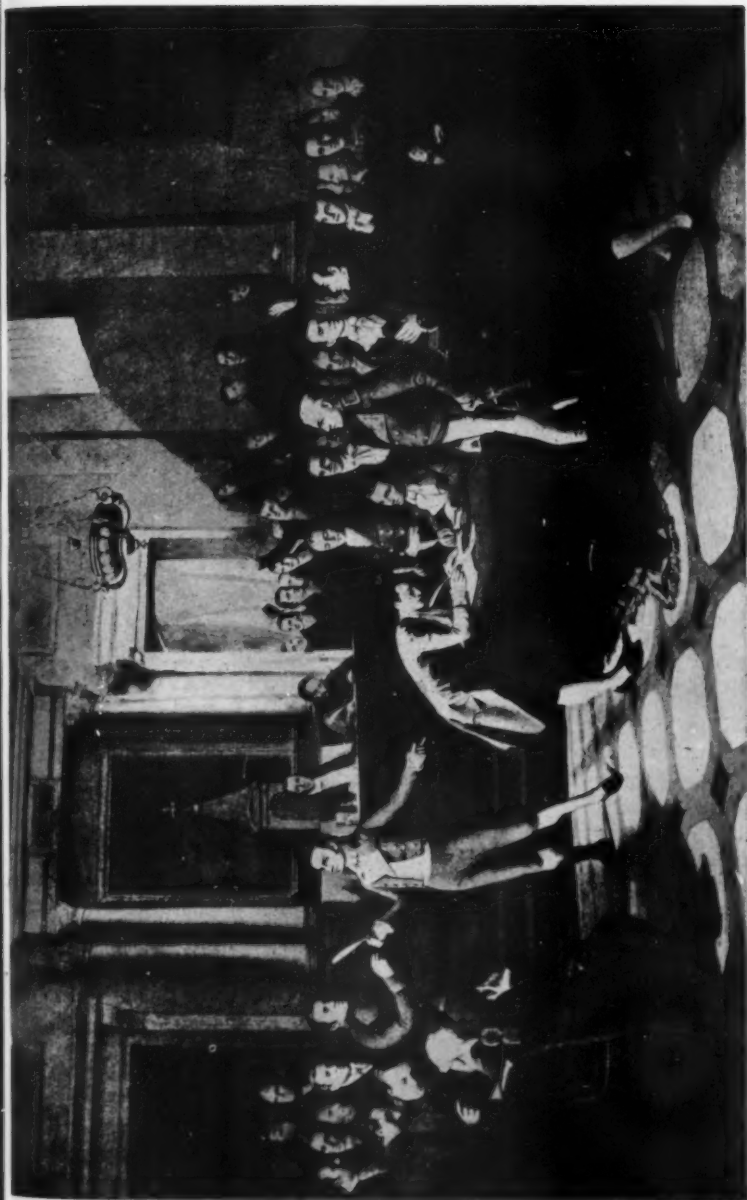
Caracas, Venezuela



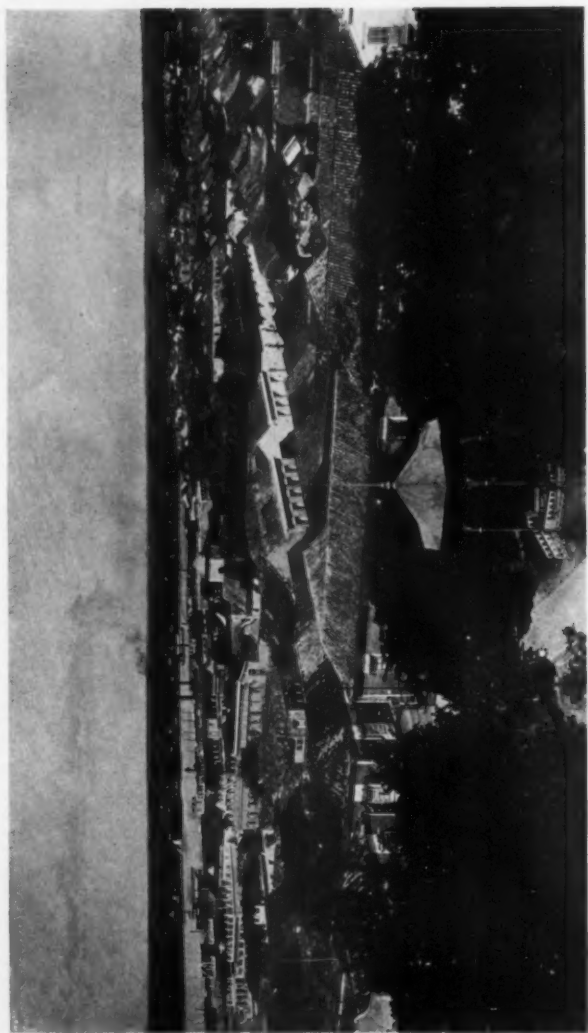
View of Caracas from El Calvario Hill



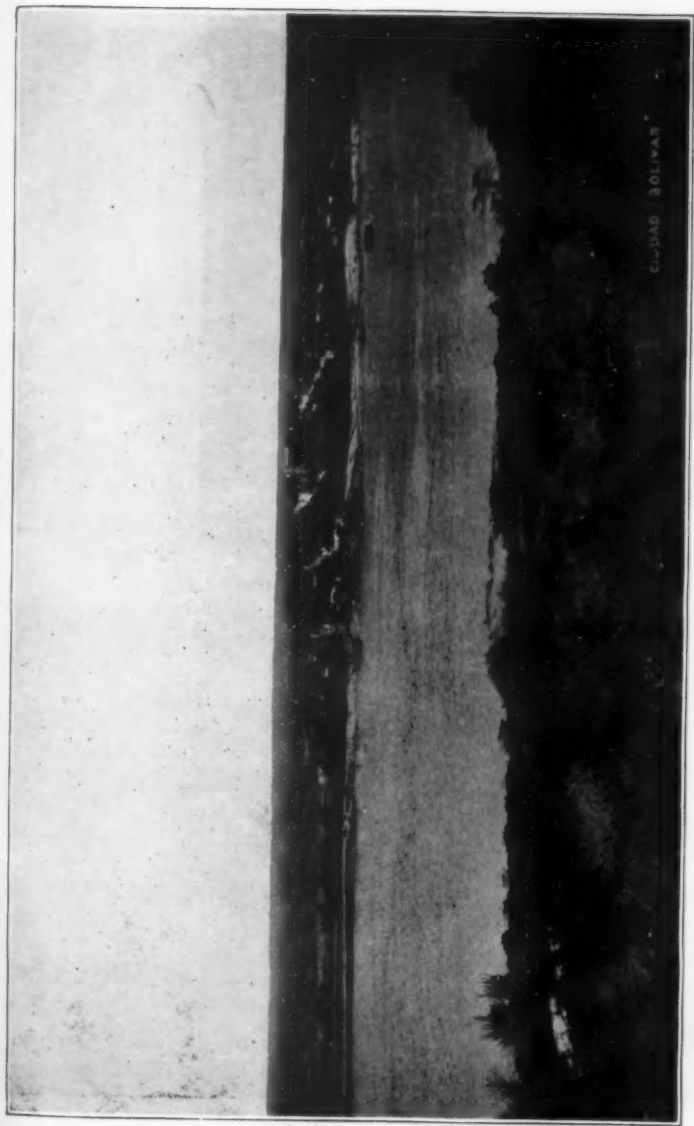
Mausoleum of Bolívar in the National Pantheon at Caracas. This notable work of art by Tenerani, the famous Italian sculptor, is considered one of his masterpieces



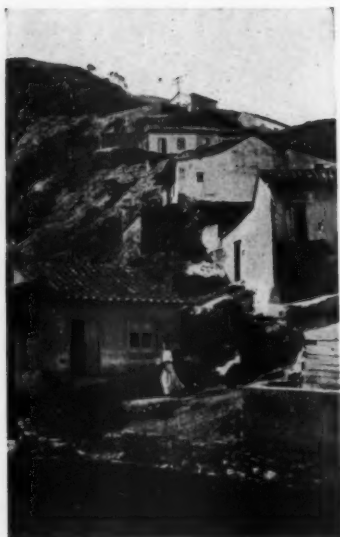
The constituent congress of Venezuela signing the declaration of independence of July 5, 1811
Martin Tovar's famous painting showing the fiery Yanes in the act of signing his name; behind him stands Javier de Ustariiz passing a pen to the Marquis del Toro; the erect figure standing with his hand on the table is General de Miranda.



Maracaibo, Venezuela. View of the city looking west from the Cathedral



The city of Ciudad Bolívar. View across the Orinoco river



Up the cliffs at La Guaira



National theater, Caracas





Europeans." Such hasty judgment is a great injustice, for the rate of mortality is less here than in many other tropical seaports.

Built out on the lake, on stilts, lay the little Indian village that caught the eye of Ojeda, when that early navigator visited the shores. Its fanciful resemblance to the city on the Adriatic suggested to him the name of "Little Venice" for the settlement he established here. In the course of time the absurdly inappropriate, though most euphonious Spanish diminutive, *Venezuela*, came to be applied to the whole country—a mountainous region bigger than the whole of Italy and Spain combined.

Rounding the eastern enclosure of the Gulf, the Paraguana peninsula, the traveller comes upon the quaint old town of Coro, founded in 1527, and one of the very first of the European settlements. Until 1576 it was the seat of Spain's government of the colony, and is now the capital of the State of Falcón. Here, also, Miranda made his first resistance to Spanish misrule at the beginning of the revolutionary war. Coro is but a few miles south of the Dutch Island of Curaçao, that most picturesque fragment of Amsterdam perched on a coral rock.

Sweeping out eastward over the sea, as if in continuation of the Mérida range, is the Cordillera de la Silla (the "Saddle Range"), which terminates abruptly at Cape Codera. Midway between this cape and Coro, lies the important seaboard city of Puerto Cabello. Its environment is not only remarkably attractive—like an oasis to the traveller who has sailed along the bleak coast range for many hours—but it is to-day one of the finest harbors in the known world, as it was in the days of the early navigators who said of it "a vessel is safe here anchored by a single hair (*cabello*)."

The city is connected by rail, over the Silla Cordillera, with the prosperous little city of Valencia some fifty miles distant, and thence, by waters of Lake Valencia, with Cura and other important inland towns that are commercial centers of a

large part of the region that slopes inland from the coast range. Puerto Cabello is, therefore, the export depot of the States of Carabobo, Lara and Zamora, three of the most productive commonwealths of the Venezuelan federal union. It was once a rendezvous of the buccaneers and, later, the scene of General Páez's astonishing night attack on the royalist forces during the revolution, when with his small command, he forced the surrender of General Calzada's entire army. To-day the city has a population of about ten thousand, and many modern improvements—electricity, water supply, well paved streets and a number of attractive new buildings that harmonize, however, with the fine old plazas and colonial residences.

Eastward some sixty-five miles towards Cape Codera, and half way the length of the Silla range, the traveller sights the great peak of Picacho rising from the water's edge to a height of over 7,000 ft. Along this promontory, on a narrow strip of beach, are scattered groups of sixteenth century houses, white and red-topped for the most part; some of them nestle inland in coves of the mountains or look over the blue Caribbean from shelves of the cliffs above. This is La Guayra, the seaport of the republic's capital. High above, overhanging the business center of the town, stands the ancient and picturesque Spanish fortress of early colonial days, and just below, on another bench of rock, may be seen the old bull ring. Overlooking all, on a high bluff, are the ruins of the old castle which was the residence of the Captain-General during the Spanish régime. To those who have enjoyed Kingsley's great novel, "Westward Ho!", the old ruins will have a romantic interest, for it was from the walls of this fortress-castle that Amyas Leigh escaped after his vain attempt to rescue the Rose of Devon; the whole Venezuelan coast has been made romantic by the tales of Charles Kingsley.

Baron Humboldt said that there is but one place in the world that can rival La Guayra in the grandeur of its set-

ting—Santa Cruz de Teneriffe which points one of the Canary Islands off the Moroccan coast. La Guayra is now all business, but not business of the feverishly bustling kind, as the arriving visitor will find, after an entire morning spent in passing from one leisurely official to another in the effort to enter the country. The port usually serves the traveller merely as a landing place on his way to Caracas. If for any reason, however, he should prefer to delay his visit to the capital, he would do well to run up the coast some three miles east of the port city, to the pleasant little watering place, Macuto, the resort of the leisure class of the nearby capital.

Caracas is but seven miles inland from the port as the crow flies, but the actual distance by rail is twenty-two miles. The steep, winding road was started by American enterprise, and at a cost of over \$100,000 per mile. It is now controlled by Englishmen, and so great is the traffic, that the little line never fails to be busy. For two hours the train zigzags up the perilous ascent to a height of three thousand feet before it turns sharply around a dizzy precipice and enters the beautiful valley of Caracas. Until this turn is made the traveller is rarely ever shut off from the gorgeous blue of the Caribbean. So superb is the constantly changing view, that he will feel more than repaid for the sensations of giddiness that may assail him as the train swings around the many curves on the route, and the yawning chasms overlooked from the car windows are but added beauties to the scene, instead of death traps, for so excellent is the construction and so efficient the management that there has never been an accident along the entire length.

Caracas is usually much on the visitor's mind during the days of his approach. His mental picture doubtless will have been colored from some newspaper cut of a dirty, tatterdemalion crew, entitled "The President's Body Guard" or by the equally deceptive idea of chaotic civic affairs. But he will by this time have learned, from his visits to other

Venezuelan centers, that this charming and progressive country has been greatly maligned by our North American press. He will be entirely reassured the instant the train comes to a stop and he descends at the clean, pleasant little station and, in cab or trolley car, enters the fine old Spanish metropolis, rich in creature comforts, dignity, history and civic pride. Its population now exceeds seventy thousand, in which there is but a small percentage of citizens of foreign birth.

Unquestionably Caracas is one of the most delightful places of residence in the world. It lies in a valley three thousand feet up from the sea, on either side of which rise ranges of mountains to a height of about seven and nine thousand feet, respectively. The tropical heat of this latitude is tempered to perpetual spring by reason of the high altitude and the luxuriant fertility resulting from the misty rains sprayed from the mountains, make of the city and its environs a garden of astonishing beauty. One old gentleman, retired from the British diplomatic service after many years in Caracas, preferred to end his days here, where, he said, it was "but a step to Paradise."

The city is laid out in the usual Spanish colonial scheme—in streets running at right angles to each other, forming blocks of nearly uniform size. Prior to the liberation from Spain, the streets bore names expressive of the dominant influence of religion in the city's life—names that seem strange to us now: *Encarnación del Hijo de Dios* (Incarnation of the Son of God), *Dulce Nombre de Jesus* (Sweet Name of Jesus), *Presentación del Niño Jesus en el Templo* (Presentation of the Child Jesus in the Temple), *Huido á Egipto*, (Flight to Egypt), and many others of like import—a custom prevalent in most of the ancient cities of Spain and her colonies, and one which still prevails in Cuba. Fronting on the narrow, paveless streets are the plastered, red-tiled houses found in all North Andean cities; behind the bars the pretty Venezuelan girls look out from their cloistered seclusion with the same wistfulness that is noted in Bogotá or Lima.

A few days of sight-seeing in and about the capital is well worth while, no matter what the purpose of the visit to Venezuela. The House of Congress is on the road to everywhere; inside it the decorations and frescoes are exceptionally fine, and perpetuate many of the principal events in the life of the nation. Miraflores, the appropriately named home of Venezuela's president, is open to visitors at certain hours. In the Pantéon, to the north of the city, repose the remains of Bolívar in a superb tomb of Parian marble. Upon it stands a statue of the Liberator, wrapped in his military cloak—a noble and dignified figure. In front of the cathedral is the broad Plaza Bolívar in the center of which, amidst a profusion of tropical plants, rises the equestrian statue of the nation's hero. Another may be seen in Bolívar Park on which front several federal buildings; the coins bear Bolívar's name, and the largest state of the Union, as well as its capital, Ciudad Bolívar, is similarly honored—everywhere throughout the republic, his name is revered as is Washington's with us. In the museum of the University, in a room kept sacred as the "Holiest of Holies," are displayed the Liberator's clothing, saddle, boots and spurs, and many relics intimately connected with his brilliant career. Among them is the portrait of Washington, sent him by Custis, bearing the inscription, "This picture of the Liberator of North America is sent by his adopted son to him who acquired equal glory in South America."

The white group of buildings of the Vargas Hospital on the heights near the city, presents a beautiful picture against the mountains in the background. This is one of the most extensive and best equipped in America—either North or South. In the Academia de Bellas Artes are displayed the works of Michelena, a son of Caracas, whose paintings have obtained an international reputation, and many other pictures by native artists from which one may get a good idea of the great scenic beauty of Venezuela.

Although there are no active volcanoes in Venezuela,

the country has been subject to many destructive earthquakes, notably in 1812, when Caracas was nearly destroyed at a cost of some twelve thousand lives. As a consequence of the constant presence of this menace, the buildings of the capital are almost uniformly of one story. From the Monte Calvario on the outskirts of the city, the general aspect is flat and monotonous, but a walk through the broader avenues and the fifteen or more parks and plazas, gives to the visitor vistas of foliage and flowers that leave on his mind the impression of a lovely garden.

The capital is connected by railway with Puerto Cabello, via Lake Valencia. This is the attractive scenic route that is made a part of the Caribbean excursions offered by the steamship lines each winter. The road passes through indescribably beautiful mountains and *llanos*—alternating wooded slopes and meadows, and richly productive fields of maize and wheat. Frequent stops are made at the stations of important plantations or the busy centers of this great agricultural region: La Victoria, San Mateo and Valencia, the last named, a modernized city of forty thousand inhabitants and the capital of the State of Carabobo, one hundred and thirty-seven miles from Caracas.

Turning back along the coast, eastward, and passing the last of the coast ranges, the Carib mountains, which taper off to the sharp point of the Paria peninsula, the traveller comes to the Island of Trinidad which helps to enclose the Gulf of Paria. This island is now a British possession and is famous for its asphalt lakes; it is also the point at which Columbus stopped on his third voyage and met the fresh waters from the Orinoco delta, thus becoming convinced that he was confronted by a great continent. He gave the island its name when he observed from his masthead the three high peaks on its northern coast.

The deltaic region of the Orinoco river basin extends for about four hundred and fifty miles in a southeasterly direction from the mountain ridge on the Paria peninsula

to the British Guiana highlands, and covers an area of seven thousand square miles. Here the traveller enters a country of wild, tropical forests, mangrove swamps and maze-like waterways, teeming with strange bird and animal life—practically the same primeval land of mystery that terrified the first navigators.

The delta is made up of fifty or more channels emptying into the Atlantic north of the main stream of the Orinoco. The region is entered by the Royal Mail through the central channel, or Macareo river. The service of ocean steamers, however, extends as yet only as far as Ciudad Bolívar, about six hundred miles from the mouth, although the river is navigable for smaller vessels as far as Apures rapids—over a thousand miles up its course on the Colombian frontier. For fifteen hundred miles the wonderful stream extends into the continent, draining a territory of three hundred and sixty-four thousand square miles. With its numerous affluents, the Orinoco affords four thousand, three hundred miles of navigable waters for the service of this vast region. The main river rises in the Parima mountains, which, with the Pacarima range, forms the frontier with Brazil. Near its source it is tapped by the Casiquiare river which flows also into the Rio Negro, an affluent to the Amazon.

The traveller entering the Orinoco from the sea never forgets his first impressions. There is a weird grandeur about the deep green forests that cannot be described—the magnificent trees, closely grouped and undergrown with mangrove and tropical jungle plants that create a dense black-shadowed land of mystery which is made ever more uncanny to the new-comer by the startling cries of the jaguar and puma and the queer howling monkeys. Amid the rich and varied foliage are everywhere conspicuous the thick, leathery leaves of such plants as flourish only beneath the bright skies of the tropics, where the glorious crowns of leafage never lose that freshness and brilliance which is assumed by northern woodlands only in the lovely season of early

spring. Hence the darker tones blending with the fitting shafts of sunlight develop a play of color effects of never-ending delight to the lover of nature. Countless creepers twine themselves around the great tree trunks, forming here and there dense masses of foliage bathed in most dazzling colors. In many places natural bowers are thrown up displaying a beauty and symmetry which could not be surpassed by the most consummate art. The flame-colored flamingo and strange birds of brilliant plumage, and the chattering parrots add the necessary touch of life to make the whole a scene of fairy land.

South of the Orinoco there is a gradual rise to the Guiana Highlands which are as yet sparsely populated and but little given over to cultivation; this hilly country, constituting about half of the republic's area, ascends in uneven ridges to the higher altitudes of the Brazilian frontier ranges. North of the river the rolling plains, or *llanos*, sweep inland from the Atlantic between the Guiana Highlands and the coast ranges like a great green arm of the sea—past the Mérida sierra and the western escarpment of the Highlands, to merge in the hot plains of the Amazon region. These *llanos* do not correspond exactly with the Argentine *pampas*; they undulate and ascend gradually from the river bottoms to an elevation of over three hundred feet, when they continue on up into the foothills of the coast mountains. They are thus known as *llanos altos*, or upper plains, and *llanos bajos*, or lower plains. The *llanos* present a diversified aspect, with much broken ground and heavily wooded tracts near the upper courses of the Orinoco affluents, and clothed, in some of the lower stretches, with rich tropical vegetation.

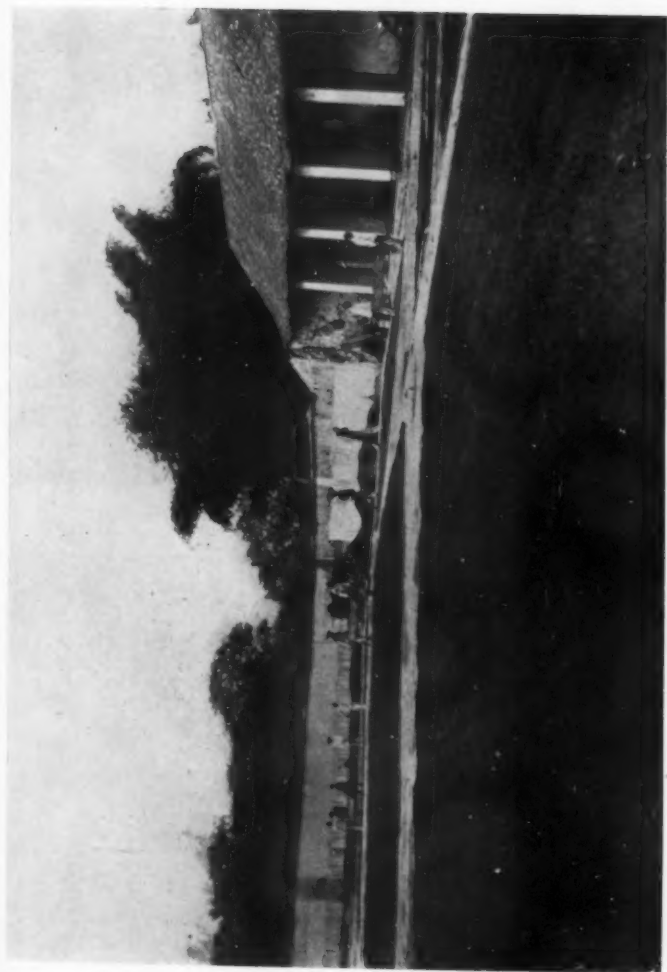
In this fertile agricultural and grazing country lies the future wealth of the nation, for although coal and iron have been discovered within its boundaries in practicable quantities, Venezuela's production is confined to-day to coffee (the leading export), cacao, sugar, cotton, indigo, rubber, cereals,



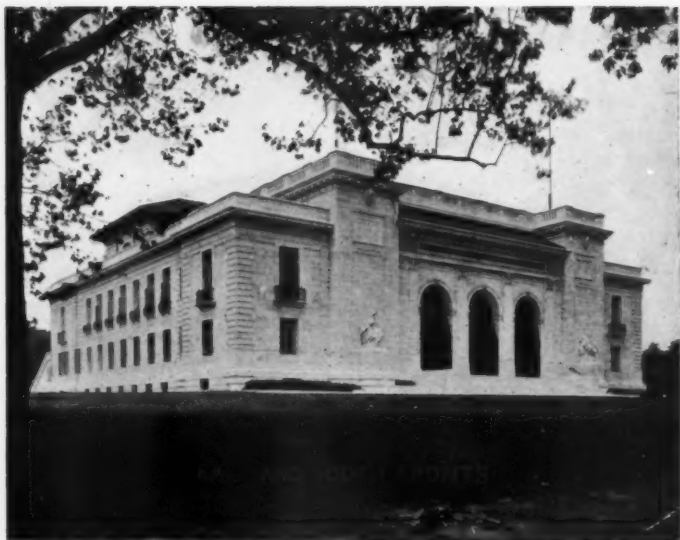
Bread fruit tree



River San José, at its junction with the Tuy and Stramina rivers, State of Bermudez



Scene on a coffee plantation in Venezuela



Exterior of the Pan American Building, Washington, D. C.



Patio of the Pan American Building, Washington, D. C., typical of those seen universally throughout South America



cattle, hides, aigrette plumes, gold, sarsaparilla and other medicinal plants, cabinet woods and fruits. Venezuela also possesses three of the world's most important asphalt deposits—on Pedernales island in the Gulf of Paria, at Cumaná, and near Maracaibo. The foreign trade of Venezuela last year approximated \$26,730,000, the great bulk of which was with Europe; but \$7,400,000 of her products reached our shores.

The population of Venezuela is made up of Indians, *mestizos* and unmixed descendants of the Spanish; but few North Americans are settled in the country thus far, in spite of its nearness to the United States. A better acquaintance between our people and the Venezuelan land of promise should result from the opening of the Panama Canal. This most desirable consummation will operate to the benefit of both peoples, for, being but six days from New York and four from Charleston, the flow of the country's trade should turn our way with increasing volume as our merchants become familiar with the ports of the Spanish Main en route to the canal. So far Venezuela is almost wholly unknown to us. Less than ten years ago, a bill was introduced in our Congress to consolidate the diplomatic missions to the republics of Venezuela and Guatemala, under the impression that the countries were adjacent! and during the debate one member arose and asked in all seriousness, "Where is Venezuela, anyhow?"

Like Brazil, Argentina, and Mexico, Venezuela is a federation of states. In this respect it differs from the other Latin American republics. Its government is modelled closely on our own, although more centralized, the governors of the states being appointed by the federal executive. The country is on a gold basis; its national debt is not excessive; its administration of the postal, telegraph and customs services is efficient and progressive, and, underlying the whole structure, is the sure guarantee of inexhaustible agricultural riches. With each new crisis in her history, Venezuela has

advanced to a higher plane, and has maintained her footing. The men who have lifted her up the steps of her career have been honest in their purpose and patriotic citizens first, whatever they may have been in their private lives—Bolívar, Páez, Vargas, Guzmán Blanco, Crespo, and the little Andean general who has recently come again into international notice after a brief eclipse, Cipriano Castro. Many other names may be written on her roll of fame: the romantic, but visionary, Miranda, the fiery young patriot Yañez and the Venezuelan of all others who survived the revolution without question or reproach—General Sucre, who became the first president of Bolívar's republic of Bolivia.

Of all her latter day sons, Guzman Blanco accomplished most for his country. After service in the diplomatic corps in Europe, he returned in 1870 and was able to assume the supreme authority with an understanding of the needs of his disordered country and the knowledge and forcefulness with which to supply them. During his practical dictatorship of eighteen years, he ruled with a rod of iron, he enriched himself and his favorites, and stamped his personality ineradicably on the country—but he made Venezuela blossom like a rose. He rebuilt and beautified the capital, subsidized and fostered the railroads, opened the door to foreign capital and traders who learned to believe in his stable government, and improved the ports. Under his energetic administration the production of coffee reached phenomenal proportions; shipping made rapid progress; the population increased in normal ratio, and the homes of the people improved in every way. The work he did lasted. Castro also, worked hard to build up a spirit of nationalism with which to withstand the impositions of foreign governments, whose citizens in many instances had sought by fraudulent claims to enrich themselves. He too won a good fight and in some respects advanced Venezuela to a higher place in the family of nations. His patriotism has been made grotesque in our

public press, but it was sincere. He is well-born and able and has shown many of the elements of statesmanship.

Venezuela unquestionably has suffered injustice at the hands of European governments, and of our own, in the demands they have sought to enforce on behalf of citizens who have attempted to exploit the country—notably in the cases of her dispute with Great Britain over the boundary with British Guiana, and the French cable company.

THE GUIANAS.

On the northeastern shoulder of the continent lies a huge block of territory as large as France and Spain combined. It is in reality an island, since it is bounded on the north and east by the Caribbean Sea and Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Amazon river, and on the northwest and west by the continuous water-way formed by the Orinoco, the Casiquiare and the Negro rivers, the last named being an affluent of the Amazon. Like the north Andean republics, the Guiana country is made up of mountains, highlands and low-lying plains, and lies wholly in the tropics; its productiveness thus embraces nearly every cereal and vegetable found in the three great zones of the earth.

Guiana was discovered, named and first occupied by the Spanish in the very beginning of things in South America. It acquired fame in the latter part of the sixteenth century as one of the regions in which the home of El Dorado (the Gilded Man) was supposed to be located—the fateful will-o'-the-wisp which was chased by the early adventurers all the way from the mountain fastnesses about Bogotá, in Colombia, and the lure which brought disaster to even such men of intelligence and practical common-sense as Sir Walter Raleigh and Sir Francis Drake. The long-sought Lake Guatavita (near Bogotá) in whose sacred waters El Dorado bathed his gilded body, was once supposed to lie near the source of the Orinoco in the Parima mountains, and indeed, geologists now contend that such a lake

did exist ages ago in these mountainous heights, and it is unquestionably true that on the line northward from this point runs a vein of gold richer than any in the known world and that this vein had been worked by the Indians from time immemorial.

The lure of the gold, purged, however, of its myth, has survived to our own day, for we all remember Great Britain's effort, in her boundary dispute with Venezuela, to extend her Guiana boundary over the rich gold fields south of the Orinoco delta.

Until 1624, the Spanish succeeded in holding Guiana against all comers; but in that year the Dutch West India Company gained a foothold at the head of the Essequibo delta, and was confirmed in its possession by the treaty of Münster in 1648, at the close of the war between Spain and the Netherlands. After this opening, other nations made haste to share in a partition of the rich territory. The French established a colony at Cayenne; the English made a settlement and called it Surreyham, after the Earl of Surrey,—whence the present name of Surinam—and eventually Guiana became partitioned among the five nations: Brazil became the owner of that portion trailing off southward to the Amazon which Portugal had wrested from Spain, and which is now sometimes called Brazilian Guiana, although it is an integral part of the United States of Brazil; France still retains Cayenne, now known as French Guiana; the Dutch are now installed in the Surinam colony which came into their possession at the time of the British occupation of New York, and is now called Dutch Guiana; Great Britain owns the three settlements at Demerara, Berbice and Essequibo, captured in 1803 from the Dutch and afterwards ceded to her by the treaty of 1814, and which now constitute British Guiana, and, lastly, Venezuela, as successor to the title of Spain, owns the rest of the highlands, south of Parima and Pacarima, the territory formerly known as Spanish Guiana until the revolution of the Venezuelan colonists,

since which time it has been a part of the United States of Venezuela.

British Guiana is 109,000 square miles in area—larger than the United Kingdom—and has a population of about 300,000, made up of 150,000 negroes, 100,000 East Indians, 15,000 Portuguese, 10,000 British and Europeans and the balance in *mestizos*. It is divided into three counties which correspond to the old settlements—Demerara, Berbice and Essequibo. Georgetown, the capital, is on the right bank of the Demerara river at its mouth. It is an attractive port city of about sixty thousand inhabitants, heavily shaded with tropical trees and presents the substantial appearance of most British colonial centers. Just now its business is rather slack, but, as the shipping port of a sugar area productive enough to supply the mother country, it could be developed into one of the great ports of the Caribbean. So far, however, hardly one-hundredth part of the colony has been touched, and not one-tenth of its fertile alluvium is under cultivation.

The area of Dutch Guiana is 46,060 square miles, and its population numbers about 70,000. The capital, Paramaribo, is a city of some 30,000 inhabitants, located at the junction of the Surinam and Commewine rivers, about ten miles from the sea. The colony's trade in coffee, cacao, gutta percha, timber and gold, has not yet been developed to such proportions as to make it self-supporting; it is still subsidized by the mother country.

French Guiana is known to us principally as a penal settlement. Since the days of the French Revolution, Devil's Island, off the coast, has been used by the French government as a penal establishment, and in recent years the world has become familiar with its supposed terrors by reading the account of Captain Dreyfus's sufferings. Nevertheless, French Guiana has all the capabilities of the other Guianas and could be made richly productive. Its area is 31,000 square miles and its population about 25,000; that of its

capital, the city of St. Louis on the Island of Cayenne, now numbers slightly over fifteen thousand.

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PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY

Academia de Bellas Artes	Ah-cah-day-mee'-ah day Bay'-yahs Ahr'-tays	Guajira Guzman Blanco Huido a Egypto	Gwa-hee'-rah Goos-mahn' Blahn'-koh Wee'-doh ah Ay-heep'-toh
altos	ahl'-tohs	Lara	Lah'-rah
Apures	Ah-poo-rays	Macareo	Mah-kah-ray'-oh
bajos	bah'-hohs	Mateo	Mah-tay'-oh
Berbice	Bayr-bee'-say	Michelena	Mee-chay-lay'-nah
Cabello	Kah-bay'-yoh	Miraflores	Mee-rah-floh'-rays
Calzada	Kahl-sah'-dah	Monte Calvario	Mohn'-tay Kahl-vah'-ree-oh
Carabobo	Kah-rah-boh'-boh	Ojeda	Oh-hay'-dah
Caracas	Kah-rah'-kahs	Pacarima	Pah-kah-ree'-mah
Casiquire	Kah-see-kee-ah'-ray	Paez	Pah'-ays
Ciudad	See-yoo-dad'	Paramaribo	Pah-rah-mah'-ree-boh
Codera	Koh-day'-rah	Paria	Pah-ree'-ah
columna	koh-loo'-nah	Parima	Pah-ree'-mah
Commewyne	Koh-may-wah'-ee-nay	Pedernales	Pay-dayr-nah'-lays
Concha	Kohn'-chah	Picacho	Pee-kah'-choh
Coro	Koh'-roh	Presentacion del Nino Jesus en el Templo	Pray-sayn-tah-see-ohn' dayl Neen'-yoh Hay-sos' ayn ayl Taym'-ptoh
Cumana	Koo-mah-nah'	Silla	See'-yah
Cura	Koo'-rah	Valencia	Vah-layn'-see-ah
Curacao	Koo-rah-sah'-oh	Vargas	Vahr'-gahs
Demerara	Day-may-rah'-rah	Vespucci	Vays-pee-oo'-chee
Dulce Nombre de Jesus	Dool'-say Nohm'-bray	Yanez	Zah-moh'-rah
Encarnacion del Hijo de Dios	day Hay-soos' An-kahr-nah-see-ohn' dayl Ee'-hoh day Day-ohs	Zamora	Yahn-yays'
Esequeibo	Ay-say-kee'-boh		
Falcon	Fahl-kohn'		



IX. Scientific Management*

Carl S. Dow

ORDINARILY we do not associate science with the handling of pig iron, one of the elementary forms of manual labor, or with the shoveling of such materials as coal and ore. Yet at the Bethlehem Steel Company laborers who had been accustomed to handling $12\frac{1}{2}$ tons of pig iron per day increased this amount to 47 tons when instructed by men who had studied the matter. Also, it was found that a man could do the biggest day's work without fatigue with an average shovel load of 21 pounds.

The operation of bricklaying apparently gives no opportunity for increasing the performance by scientific investigation, nor, from casual consideration are the processes of sealing and folding letters more promising. But the application of science to bricklaying resulted in the laying of 350 bricks per hour by men who previously averaged 120. In a publishing house, the number of letters made ready for the mail when folding, sealing and stamping were done in a way made standard after studying workers' motions and the arrangement of materials was about four times as great as when the girls were allowed to do the work in a manner chosen by themselves.

These illustrations are selected because of their sim-

*Previous instalments of this series are "Engineers and Engineering" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1911; "The Steam Engine," October; "Heating Houses and Public Buildings," November; "Mechanical Refrigeration," December; "Compressed Air," January, 1912; "Gasoline Engine," February; "Sanitary Engineering," March; "Reinforced Concrete," April.

plicity and because of the absence of machines which introduce variables. Equally good and usually better results follow the application of scientific investigation to intricate classes of work.

Suppose an intelligent man or woman studies his machine, analyzes his motions, uses his time to the best advantage, both his working and his rest periods, and thereby finds the law governing the one best way of doing his work. Such a man is scientific, he applies the science of production—but he is an individual, not an organization, and therefore the term “management” cannot be used.

But suppose the executive organization of a company follows the policy of studying the laws which govern production, and determines for every operation that combination of men, motions, materials, and tools which turns out the work in the most economical way; in short, applies the science of production. Such a use of the science of production is called “scientific management.”

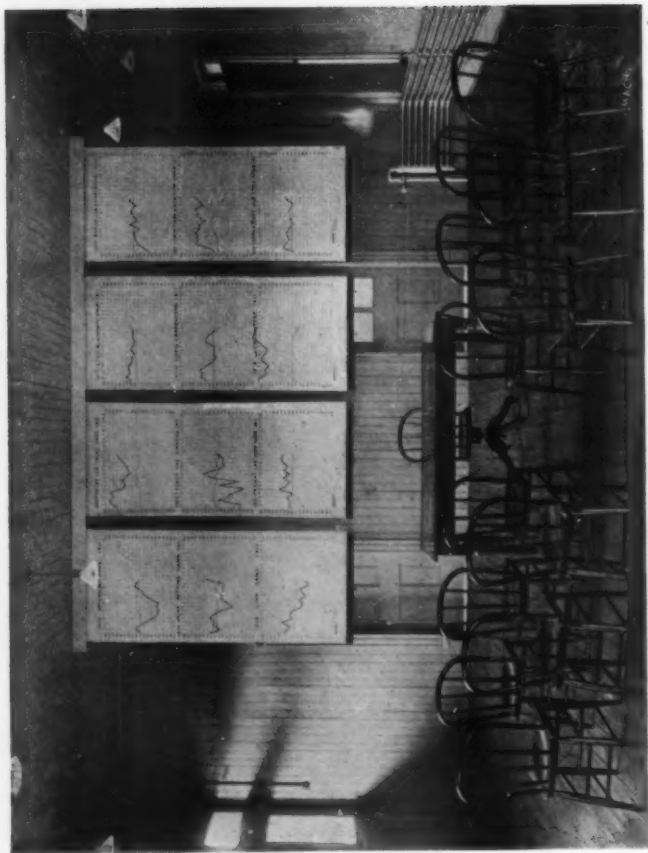
Scientific management, then, is the art of applying the science of production, or the science of salesmanship, to a company's business. This may not be an adequate definition of scientific management—it cannot be defined well in a single sentence, nor even in a paragraph; whole books are required to develop the subject. But perhaps this short definition will suffice until the principles of production and the functions of the management are more clearly defined in the mind of the reader.

In 1878, Mr. F. W. Taylor, the pioneer in formulating and applying the principles of scientific management, began work in the machine shop of the Midvale Steel Company. At that time and for some few years afterward, the compensation of the men was determined by what is known as the “piece-work” system, that is, the men were paid by the piece, not by the day or by the hour. The workmen did not strive very hard to do as much as they could and so increase their earnings, for under this system the management had a habit



Frederick W. Taylor, who has done more than any other man to reduce the problem of management to an exact science. Author of "Scientific Management"

(Courtesy of Harper and Brothers)



Foreman's meeting room. Charts arranged on curtains show monthly efficiency of each gang, and the percentage of time covered by schedule



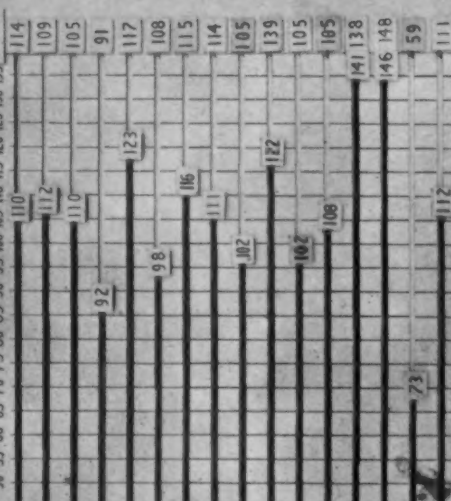
TOPEKA SHOP. COACH DEPARTMENT. Gang Efficiency For Month of FEB.

PREVIOUS
MONTH.

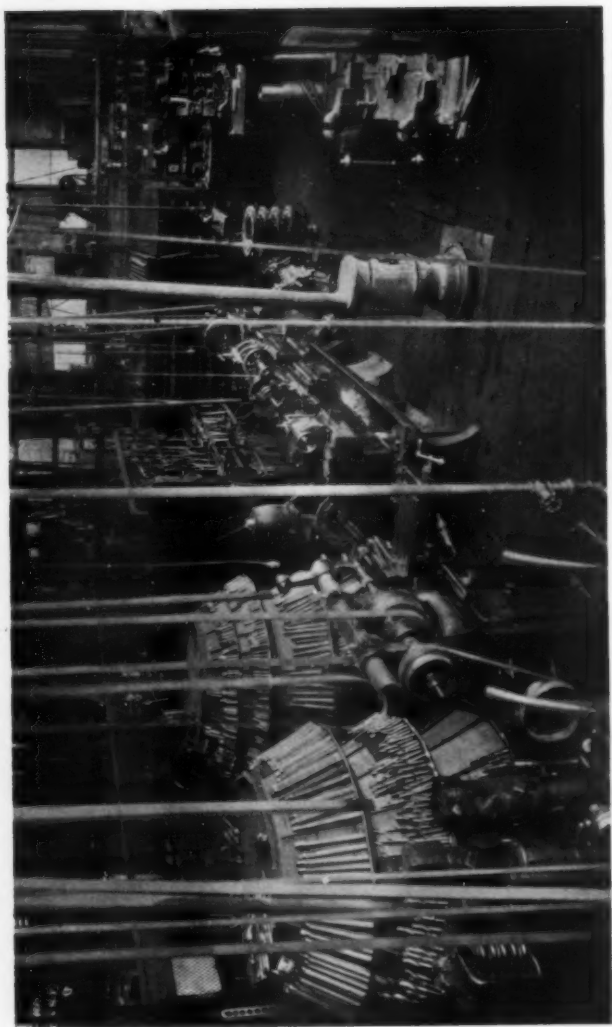
JAN

50 55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95 100 105 110 115 120 125 130 135

COACH SHOP PLANNING MLL.
CABINET SHOP.
INSIDE COACH BODY GANG.
OUTSIDE COACH BODY GANG.
COACH TRUCK & PLATFORM GANG
COACH TRIMMERS.
UPGLSTERERS.
COACH TINNERS.
COACH AIR & PIPE GANG.
SILVER PLATERS.
HAND CAR DEPARTMENT.
COACH MACHINE & STEEL GANG.
COACH PAINTERS (MAIN)
COACH PAINTERS SUBSIDARY GANG
LABORERS & SWEEPERS.
GENERAL AVERAGE.



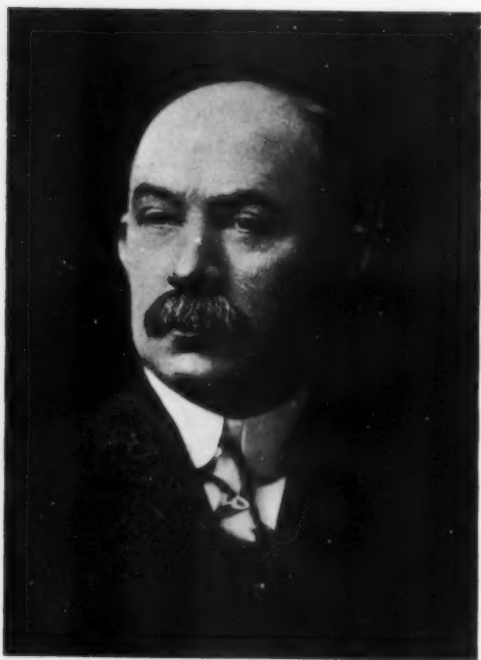
Efficiency record board for various gangs of the coach department of the Santa Fe. Records are for the information of the foreman



Tool room at Albuquerque, New Mexico, shops

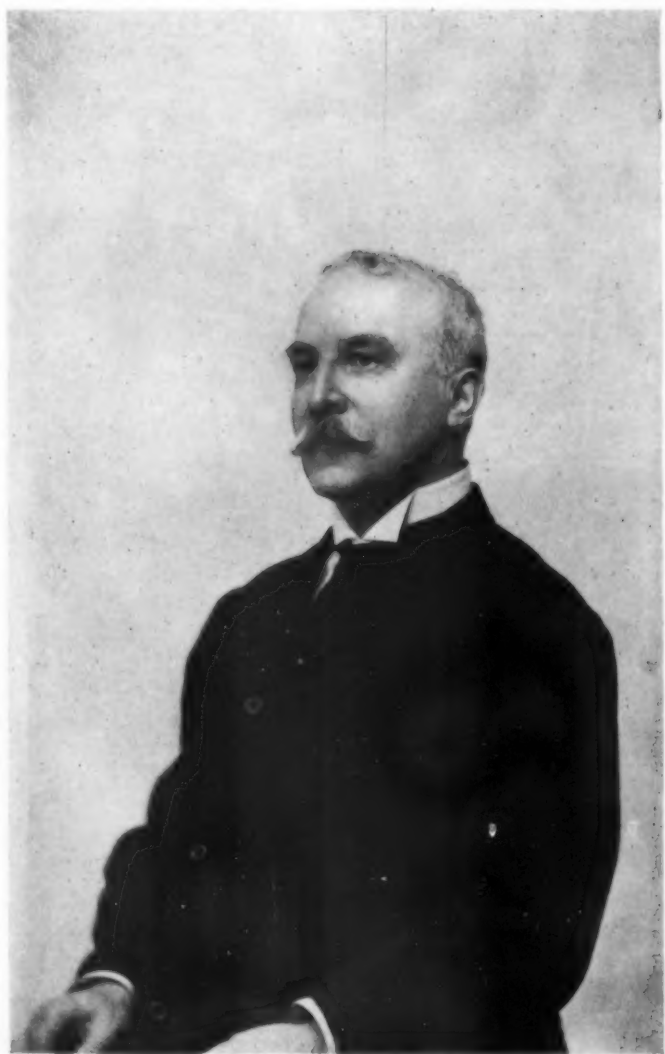


Abundant light is an important factor in scientific production. Industrial building designed by Lockwood Greene & Company



Henry L. Gantt

For more than twenty years engaged in developing scientific management. Best known from his investigations into the compensation of workmen



Harrington Emerson
Teaches big manufacturers how to save money in business. A
practical idealist



Nest body with packages being pushed into a Packard motor truck. Time of truck and driver not wasted "waiting" for a load



of reducing the piece rate as soon as the man began to make much money. In the Midvale Steel Company, the workmen planned how fast each job should be done and limited the speed of the machines so that the output was actually about one-third of what it should have been.

Mr. Taylor, who had turned out more work than the other machinists, was made gang-boss of the lathes. He tried in every way to increase the output, but it was a constant struggle. The men, many of whom were his personal friends, would ask him if it was for their own interest to turn out more work, and knowing the conditions, knowing that they would have to work harder without earning more, he had to tell them that if he were in their places he would fight against turning out more work. He realized that the trouble was in the system of management.

But when he became foreman, he tried to bring about changes in the management; his energies were directed toward making the interests of men and management interdependent. He tried so to arrange matters that the workmen would benefit from their greater output. Such an endeavor soon brought to the surface the fact that neither men nor management knew what really constituted a proper day's work. Right here began the study of the science of production.

The president of the company wished to please Mr. Taylor because he had been so successful, and accordingly allowed him to make experiments. These studies were conducted scientifically and related principally to the time required to do various kinds of work, also to the finding of some law or rule which governs physical labor whereby a foreman could know in advance how much physical labor a man could stand.

These studies, carried out with stop watch and measuring stick, showed among other things that a workman should be under load only a certain percentage of the time (depending upon the work) and should be free from load

part of the time. Returning to the handlers of pig iron; it was found that the best of the men could work without harmful fatigue if they were under load 42 per cent of the time, and free from load 58 per cent of the time. In a ten-hour working day there are 600 minutes—therefore the man could be under load $.42 \times 600$, or 252 minutes. The distance from the pile of iron to the car was thirty-six feet, and the stop watch showed that the men covered this distance with load in the average time of .218 minutes. In 252 minutes they would make 252 divided by .218, or 1,156 trips. The pigs averaged 92 pounds each, so that $92 \times 1,156$ equalled 106,352 pounds, or over 47 long tons were carried in a day.

These facts were determined while the men were at work, and while they were loading but $12\frac{1}{2}$ tons. Mr. Taylor first figured out that they could load $47\frac{1}{2}$ tons, and this figure was set as the standard. With men fitted physically and temperamentally for the work, instructed as to how the work should be done, and rewarded by increased pay, the tonnage thus scientifically determined became the amount actually handled.

Mr. Taylor's gathering of data on production led him from one thing to another, but every development pointed to the urgent necessity of a revolutionary change in management, a change to a system of management which would recognize and adopt the principles on which the science of production is based, and by applying the principles perform the real functions of management.

Before considering the management, let us look closer into what constitutes the science of production. Most work is done on machines which really constitute the tangible equipment. The problem is how to remove chips rapidly, whether wood or metal, and how to make the piece smooth and true in the shortest time. To solve this problem the machine must be standardized, that is, its speed and feeding capacity must be arranged to do the particular job in the shortest time.

That most machines are not turning out as much work as they are capable of doing is strongly suspected, but indisputable evidence to this effect is usually lacking except in those comparatively rare instances when scientifically trained men have made proper tests. An instance related by Mr. Taylor shows the material gain resulting from standardizing equipment.

"A number of years ago a company employing about three hundred men, which had been manufacturing the same machine for ten or fifteen years, sent for us to report as to whether any gain could be made through the introduction of scientific management. Their shops had been run for many years under a good superintendent and with excellent foremen and workmen, on piece work. The whole establishment was, without doubt, in better physical condition than the average machine shop in this country. The superintendent was distinctly displeased when told that through the adoption of task management the output, with the same number of men and machines, could be more than doubled. He said that he believed any such statement was mere boasting, absolutely false, and instead of inspiring him with confidence, he was disgusted that anyone should make such an impudent claim. He, however, readily assented to the proposition that he should select any one of the machines whose output he considered as representing the average of the shop, and that we should then demonstrate on this machine that through scientific methods its output could be more than doubled.

"A careful record was therefore made, in the presence of both parties, of the time actually taken in finishing each of the parts which a first-class mechanic worked upon. The total time required by him to finish each piece, as well as the exact speeds and feeds which he took, were noted, and a record kept of the time which he took in setting the work in the machine and removing it. After obtaining in this way a statement of what represented a fair average of the work done in the shop, we applied to this one machine the principles of scientific management.

"After preparation so that the workman should work according to the method, one after another, pieces of work were finished on the lathe, corresponding to the work which had been done in our preliminary trials, and the gain in time made through running the machine according to scientific principles ranged from two and one-half times the speed in the slowest instance to nine times the speed in the highest."

How this miracle was performed Mr. Taylor explains in every detail. He shows how the machinist could never himself arrived at this result. The result depended purely on proper management of the shop.

After the standardization of equipment comes the standardization of operations. By operations is meant the

time required to put the piece in the machine, the time consumed in working on it or finishing it, and the time taken in removing the finished article. It also includes the selection of the tools best adapted to the job in hand.

It is related that a superintendent of a machine shop bought a new machine for boring the hubs of pulleys. Theoretically the machine should have bored one pulley every two minutes, or in the six hundred minutes in the ten-hour day it should have bored three hundred pulleys; actually it bored only one hundred and forty-four pulleys. The superintendent analyzed the time for the different operations to find out how many minutes the machine was busy and how many minutes idle. One hundred and eighty minutes were lost in grinding tools, oiling bearings, and getting work into and out of the machine. A duplicate set of tools saved the time lost in grinding, two trucks instead of one saved part of the time lost in handling, with the result that the machine averaged two hundred and fifty-three pulleys, or increased its output over 75 per cent.

The study of the time required to do work, both hand work and that involving machines, makes possible savings so great as to be almost incredible. Only lately have managements undertaken to find out exactly how long it should take a man, fitted for the work and provided with proper tools, to perform a given task. While information gathered by trained observers using stop watches has been of inestimable value in increasing output, one can never be certain of the best and most efficient method until it has been subjected to the criticism of scientific investigation.

Just because bricks had been laid in a certain way for centuries people thought there was no chance for improvement. It remained for Mr. Frank B. Gilbreth to study scientifically the motions of the bricklayer. Eliminating one motion after another, by getting the most effective arrangement, he reduced the eighteen motions to five. The exact position of the feet was developed, the best height of the

mortar box and brick pile was studied, and the height of scaffold which would keep bricks, mortar, and men in their proper positions was determined. Formerly each time that a bricklayer laid a brick on the wall he lowered his 150-pound body by stooping, and then raised it again. Think of the energy wasted doing this a thousand times a day!

With Mr. Gilbreth's way, the bricks are carefully sorted and brought to the bricklayer, not as a heap dumped on the scaffold, but arranged in "packs;" the adjustable scaffold is kept at the right height all the time by a man detailed to look after this part of the work. Mr. Gilbreth's bricklayers are taught the art by the foreman; those failing to profit by the instruction are dropped; those doing their work in the right way receive a substantial increase in wages.

The science of production consists in standardizing both the equipment and the operations, as we have said. To apply the science of production, the management must recognize that it has certain functions to perform, and it must accept the responsibilities.

One of the first of these functions is the determination of a proper day's work; another is the selection of the men; a third is the training of the workers selected; a fourth is the provision of such work as will keep them employed during the hours agreed upon; and a fifth the compensation. Mr. Gantt, in his excellent book "Work, Wages, and Profits" brings out strongly that the practical value of scientific production can be made best use of when the management *provides an instructor, a task, and a bonus.*

The first function of the management, the determination of a proper day's work, utilizes very largely "motion study," "time study" and other methods of scientific production, which have been outlined briefly.

The selection of the men, the next duty of the management, should receive as much attention as does the selection of materials, which are carefully tested. To return yet again to the handlers of pig iron—the management of

the steel company carefully selected the men for this work. Their tests showed that only one man in eight of those previously engaged on the work was physically suited to handle pig iron. It was clearly the duty of the management to make the selection. The men would not do it; they would not think such a step was necessary, they would not see that it would help them; they would not remove their friends, perhaps relatives. But in choosing the pig iron handlers, those not suited to the work were well taken care of—they were given work for which they were better fitted.

The worker must be trained by the management, not merely allowed to absorb as much instruction in his art as he could get from his fellows. See how this attitude differs from that of the older types of management which assumed that a workman was more skilled in his trade than any one of the management could be—therefore with ordinary systems, all details were left to the workman. Selection of machines, speeds, tools, and ways of doing work were left to him. Under scientific management, the executives see that the workmen are instructed; they appoint foremen to teach men to work in accordance with the laws formulated from the scientific study of production; they teach the one best way of performing each operation. The management bears all the expense of scientific study and of instruction.

It is right and proper for the management to instruct their men, for the workmen themselves have neither time nor training for investigation, and still further they would never think of such a thing, for they usually prefer to sell their labor as time rather than output.

Another function of the management—providing work for the men—is one of the so-called basic principles of Mr. Taylor's system and is known as "planning" the work. In a department especially developed for the purpose, trained executives analyze the various problems, map out the work of the entire establishment, and distribute it among the various departments. The planning department corresponds

to a "board of strategy," or the "staff" of the army, or the "coaches" of an athletic team.

The system of planning is one of the principal means for bringing success to scientific management for it insures each operation being done in the best way, or at least in one of the best ways. It relieves the worker from planning his own task, enabling him to concentrate all his time and energy on production, which determines his compensation.

A "route chart" or working plan, is made of each order and copies are sent to the foremen of all the departments concerned. It shows the route or travel of all parts which make up the product; it states what parts can be taken from stock, what parts must be made, how, and by whom, and what tools will be needed. When the planning and routing is skillfully done all parts reach the assembly room at about the same time.

The workman also receives his instruction card which shows the exact order in which each operation must be performed, the tools used, the speeds and feeds (if the factory is a machine shop) and, most important of all, it gives the time in which each operation should be completed by the average workman. The planning department provides also for the supplying of material in the shape of rough castings or partly finished pieces, and for the removal of the finished product.

One's first thought on considering the extensive and exacting duties of the planning department is that the men in this department must be very learned, methodical, and of course high-priced. This is true only to an extent, for "motion study," "time study," and scientific analysis of operations and routing yield a vast amount of data which needs only to be classified and put in shape by men thoroughly versed in scientific management.

The second thought probably has to do with the workman himself. Does not this system turn him into a mere machine? Some men always follow blindly and are without

initiative, but this type soon becomes more skilful and more interested in his work. Others soon see how they can improve the methods prescribed by the planning department. When they do, they receive their reward; if they suggest improvements very often they naturally become foremen.

The fixing of compensation is the function of management in which the workman is most interested. It is a vital problem for the management also. Is not the labor cost usually the greatest of expenses? Are not most strikes caused by wage discussions?

Fundamentally there are only two systems of paying for work. One, called the "day work system" pays for the time a man puts in; the other, the "piece work system," pays for the amount of work he does. Under the day work method, the employer naturally wants all the work he can get out of his men. On the other hand, and quite as naturally, the workman wants all the money he can get for the time he spends, and sometimes does as little work as he can in the time agreed upon.

The employer cannot personally keep a record of what each man does; neither does the foreman keep individual records. Then it is impossible to tell exactly how much a man does, and it is equally impossible for the good workman to get higher wages, for his employer does not know except in a very general way that he is more efficient than others. It is therefore customary to pay a horizontal wage to all men of a class, with resulting growing discouragement to the best men until they become little better than the less skilful. What is the result? They join a union, for the union is about the only means of raising class wages, except of course the condition of a demand greatly exceeding the supply. When the union succeeds in getting the pay increased, the good workman is not satisfied, for it is *difference* in wages, not *absolute* wages that stimulates activity, and the good workman still gets the *same* pay as his less efficient neighbor. How does the raise in wages effect the less skil-

ful? He realizes that he is getting more than he is worth, but he is still unwilling to do as much as he can—for he is getting as much as those who work harder and better.

Scientific management alters all this by providing a plan for rewarding the skillful man, and for making the inefficient man more efficient. The scheme is usually called the "task and bonus" system or "task work with a bonus." It works out something like this:—the workman receives his instructions which state that the task should be done easily in, say, three hours. If he finishes it in three hours, or less, he receives four hours' pay. In other words, if he performs his task in the time stipulated, he is paid for the time stipulated *plus a percentage of that time*. If he spends more than the time stated on his instruction card, he only gets his day rate or hour rate.

Some will say, "the time allowed plus the bonus is in reality piece work," and so it is piece work for the efficient man. But the inefficient man is no worse off—he is on day work.

Practical application carries the bonus farther—to the foreman. He receives a *small* bonus for each man receiving bonus under him, and a larger bonus when *every* man under him gets a bonus. Suppose a foreman has twelve men under him and he gets eight cents bonus per day for each man who receives bonus. If eleven of them get a bonus, he would receive 88 cents. If now he gets twelve cents bonus each if *every* man receives bonus, he would be entitled to \$1.44. In other words, the twelfth man's bonus would be worth 56 cents to the foreman. Would he not give particular attention to every man who needed his instruction?

The bonus scheme quickens the whole shop. Suppose a craneman is slow in moving heavy pieces for the machine man, and by causing delay prevents some of them getting bonus. He would probably be approached after hours something after this fashion: "Jim, you lazy, good-for-nothing, you robbed me of my bonus today; if you don't hustle

things tomorrow there'll be something doing." Can you imagine anything like this under ordinary managements? No, the machine men sit calmly by, smoking if it is allowed, until the craneman gets ready to attend to them.

Scientific management gives a bonus to stimulate the man, the foreman, and the craneman.

Mr. Taylor says: "Scientific management does not necessarily involve any great invention nor the discovery of new or startling facts. It does, however, involve a certain *combination* of elements which have not existed in the past, namely, old knowledge so collected, analyzed, grouped, and classified into laws and rules that it constitutes a science. . .

"It is no single element, but rather this whole combination, that constitutes scientific management, which may be summarized as:

"Science, not rule of thumb.

Harmony, not discord.

Co-operation, not individualism.

Maximum output, in place of restricted output.

The development of each man to his greatest efficiency and prosperity."



Twelve Months of the Peace Movement

Denys P. Myers.

Librarian, World Peace Foundation

THE past year has been one in which to a remarkable extent peace has been a subject of "live news," as the journalist says. Officially and unofficially, it has received more public attention than in almost any other similar period, and to a greater extent than usual it is necessary in reviewing pacific activity to distinguish between the advances along these parallel lines. Because the public questions involved naturally are matters of general knowledge and because they result more or less from propaganda, it is convenient to consider private organized peace work before referring to public questions bearing on the movement.

For the first time in history, the peace movement began the year 1912 fully organized in all its parts. Until actual operation could be begun under the Ginn gift of 1909 and the Carnegie gift of 1910, the movement suffered most from lack of co-operation, from the limitations of the individual enthusiasts who kept it alive. Not until the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace was in a position to attack the problem of war had there ever been worked out a pacifist program that in any degree scientifically covered the entire field and sought to correlate the mass of pacifist work in the world. This has now been done, and henceforth the peace movement is to be not the result of work by many independent forces but the product of organization, correlated, and, in its results and conclusions, more free from the natural megalomania which every human being naturally feels toward his own work. The world can reasonably expect the peace movement to take on the aspect of a real science.

The outstanding fact of the past year was the progress

toward this coördination. By March, 1911, the Carnegie Endowment was organized and in action. As yet its influence has been felt chiefly in Europe where pacifism heretofore had performed the miracle of existing without visible or other means of support.

One American development was the removal of the headquarters of the American Peace Society from its ancestral home in Boston to the national capital. Its succession in Boston by the Massachusetts Peace Society followed by organizations in Maine, New Hampshire and Vermont—there was already a good society in Connecticut—has been a notable instance of activity.

In other respects also the American Peace Society has taken on a character at once more national and better designed to perform its proper service. The organization by states has been further supplemented by division into departments covering the Central West, New England, New York, and the Pacific Coast portions of the country. Most of these changes had been prepared for previous to 1911 but were made effective in that year.

Within the last few months, in this and other connections, there has been a disposition on the part of a very few people having access to print to make the cynical charge that the peace movement is at one and the same time a scheme of Mr. Carnegie's to control the movement and his instrument to bring about an Anglo-American alliance. Both statements are, of course, absolutely and perniciously false and are reverted to here only to hasten their arrival at oblivion. Mr. Carnegie made over his gift to the endowment bearing his name unconditionally and he has and desires no control over the policy followed in spending the income. The same sort of irresponsible talk has been uttered in respect to the coming celebration of the centenary of the Treaty of Ghent, committees upon which are now actively at work. The idea of this celebration was broached three years ago without the particular knowledge or aid of Mr. Carnegie. As a

prominent peace worker he was naturally asked to serve on its committees, but beyond such personal influence as is wielded in that way, Mr. Carnegie has no concern with the celebration. Such foolish statements would not be worth serious attention were it not for the strong muckraking disposition abroad in the land, regardless of common sense.

The Carnegie Endowment is under the exclusive control of its board of trustees, the executive committee of which has set down as its policy (1) that the organization will not seek to supplant associations now existing but will seek to strengthen and co-ordinate them, encouraging new organizations in parts of the field not adequately covered; (2) that the work will be world wide; (3) that abroad work will be conducted by assisting national organization; and, (4) that special attention will be given to the direction of work "along the line where the sentiment for peace comes into immediate contact with the difficulties and exigencies of practical international affairs."

The work of the Endowment is to be done in three divisions, economics, international law, and education. Professor John B. Clark of Columbia is director of the economics department, and at Berne, Switzerland, last summer called together many leading economists, who drew up a scientific program for attacking the war problem definitely from the side of the pocket-book. The division of international law is in charge of James Brown Scott, Secretary of the Endowment, and the work at present authorized includes the collection and publication of all known international arbitrations and arbitration treaties; the establishment in the Peace Palace at The Hague of an International Academy; appropriations for a selected list of international law journals and the urging of the Institute of International Law to act in an advisory capacity. The division of intercourse and education, under Nicholas Murray Butler, includes in its program promotion of the strength and efficiency of the American Peace Society; the conduct of a

Paris Bureau; promotion of the strength of the American Association for International Conciliation, the Permanent International Bureau of Peace at Berne and the Central Office of International Institutions at Brussels; promotion of the value and circulation of a selected list of peace and arbitration journals; engagement of especially effective workers for their entire time; establishment of educational exchanges between Latin America and the United States and Japan and the United States, and provision for visits of leaders of opinion to foreign countries by interchange.

This program is being carried out through the efforts of the division of education. Professor Inazo Nitobe of Tokyo is lecturing in this country, and Charles W. Eliot, President Emeritus of Harvard University, is in the Far East for the same purpose. The visits of President Butler and Dr. Scott to Europe resulted in the Endowment officials voting considerable aid to organizations previously ill-supported. Through its assistance the Permanent International Peace Bureau, beginning with 1912, was enabled to discontinue its small French bi-weekly journal and to supersede it by another in French, German and English, called the "Le Mouvement Pacifiste." This henceforth will be a much more useful journal of peace work throughout the world. Numerous other European organizations have been aided to carry on their work more efficiently. Another significant phase of the work was called to the attention of the Carnegie Endowment by Senator Henri LaFontaine of Belgium, who visited this country last spring in the interest of the Central Office of International Institutions, whose scope was explained in this journal last May. His presentation of the matter greatly interested the Endowment and its important work of welding the nations socially and scientifically is receiving assistance from the Endowment.

All of those engaged in peace work agree that the past year has seen a greater public interest in the subject than has ever before been shown. The World Peace Foundation,

essentially the educational instrument of the movement, has been particularly affected by this development. In one year 300,000 pamphlets were distributed, a surprisingly large number being sent by request. In a single year requests for information to the Foundation have quadrupled, and most of the inquirers indicate that they are writing, studying or lecturing and desire facts for those purposes. The Foundation is constantly adding new volumes to its important International Library; and the work last summer and autumn of Dr. Jordan in Japan and of Mr. Mead in England and Germany, did much to strengthen co-operation with the workers in those countries.

The remarkable work of the American School Peace League has been extended during the year to almost every state, and also to several European countries.

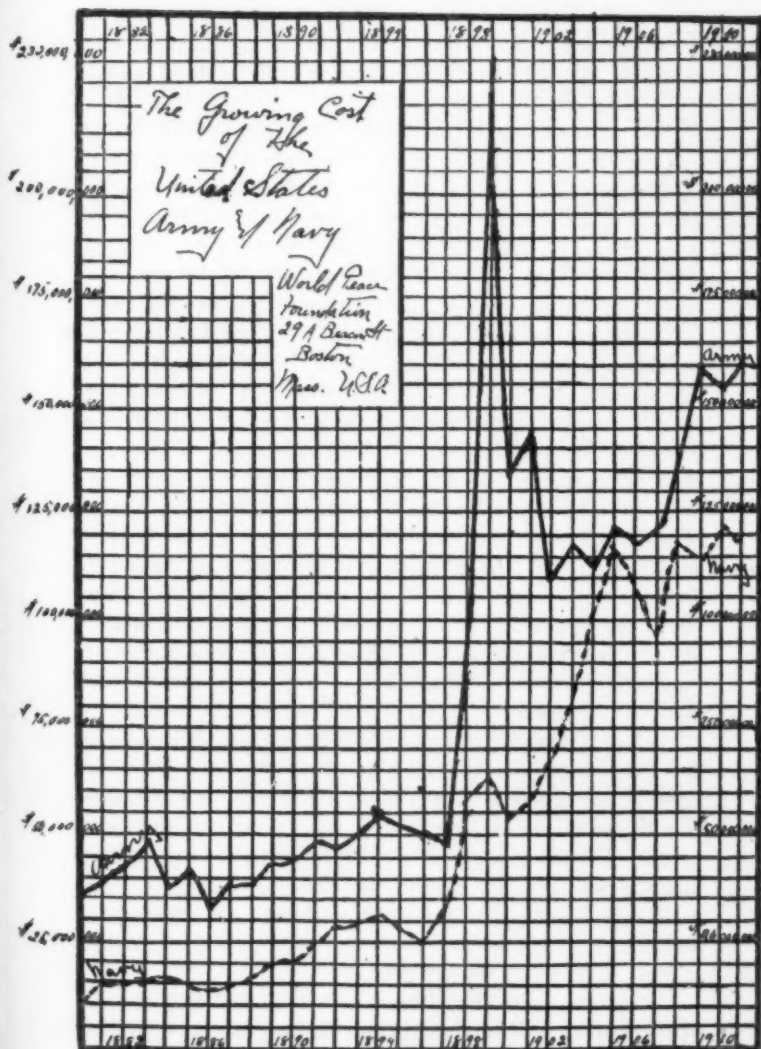
Through the prizes offered annually by the American School Peace League and the Lake Mohonk Conferences on International Arbitration, the colleges and secondary schools are taking an increased interest in the subject, while school and college debates on phases of the subject have notably increased. All of these public activities have indicated by the kind of question asked that the people have become familiar with the peace proposition, for more and more they desire facts rather than opinions or essays.

This increase of public interest has unquestionably been fostered by the presence of the arbitration treaties among the questions of national political interest. From the submission of a single resolution over 200 chambers of commerce throughout the country acted favorably to arbitration and since the texts of the arbitration treaties became available, the resolutions favoring their ratification have poured in upon the Senate in unprecedented numbers. Through the legislative day of March 5 Senators had received 1,496 resolutions favoring the treaties, from chambers of commerce, churches, commercial associations, lawyers, women's clubs,

public welfare clubs, not to speak of "sundry citizens" of every state in the Union, who transmitted their names to the Senate on joint petitions, literally by thousands.

Uncertainty in respect to its provisions marked discussion and action upon the most important peace development of the year of an official character. President Taft's suggestion of a broader arbitral basis made in December, 1910, met with cordial response from France and Great Britain. The result was the negotiation of two identic treaties, signed August 3, 1911. The unusual custom of publishing the text was followed and this not only made the treaties a public question but brought about their discussion in the open Senate.

The many public speeches and meetings held relative to the treaty question, the curious interpretation of them as blows at Ireland and Germany on the one hand and the inclination of many of their advocates to consider them as legislating in the dove of peace at one stroke, are now matters of history and need not be referred to. It was quite as surprising to find some Senators as much at sea about the real purport of the documents. For unadulterated perversity of argument let me refer the reader to the speeches of Senators Heyburn, Hitchcock and Smith of Michigan on March 5 and 6. At the voting on March 7 fears born of misunderstanding asserted themselves and the famous clause 3 of Article III., providing for the submission to a Commission of Inquiry of the interpretation of the scope of Article I, went by the board, having the misfortune to be put to the vote before action on the Lodge resolution which had been generally accepted. A textual change of no importance and a qualification of Article I were the other changes. A careful legal study of the resultant document leads me to conclude that Article I is unaffected by the qualifications of the Bacon resolution excepting from treaty jurisdiction the admission of aliens into the United States or their educational institutions, the territorial integrity of the coun-



try, Southern bonds, and the Monroe Doctrine. International law indicates beyond peradventure that such national questions are not "justiciable international" matters within the contemplation of the treaty.

At this writing it is unknown whether the Executive will ratify the mutilated treaties, let alone submitting them to France and Great Britain for ratification. It may be well to point out that even as the treaties stand they constitute a really important advance over the previous treaties. Arbitration is of course a question of a legal character. Never before the negotiation of these treaties had the legal nature of a question been made the test of its arbitrability, but this is exactly what Article I does, though it is generally admitted that its scope is little if any larger than that of the previous treaties with their exceptions of questions affecting independence, vital interests and national honor. Under the old treaties the question of arbitrability was left to the caprice of international politics. Under Article I of these treaties only the legal character of the matter determines action upon it. The next step is of course to secure a disinterested opinion on the character of a given case. Provision was made for this in the rejected clause 3 and perhaps its fate was in no small measure due to the fact that the negotiators attempted to take two steps in advance in full view of the public.

The result as a matter of education was notable and can be contemplated by everybody without regret. A public hitherto not much informed as to arbitration had occasion to consider the subject earnestly and to study it to no small extent. Viewed broadly, it is probably not too much to say that the whole nation within the past year has expressed itself unanimously for peace, even though the citizenship was not so single-minded as to the merits of a particular arbitral solution of the problem.

It is the opinion of the writer that American peace workers were well advised in not making an issue of the

outbreak of the Turco-Italian war. The events of last September were generally hailed as directly violating the Hague Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes. The actual wording of that document does not bear out the allegation, for mediation before a war is expressly left by it in the hands of the disputants, who permit it "as far as circumstances allow." Italy, in a diplomatic note prior to the declaration of war, served notice on the powers that in this case circumstances did not allow, and their own lack of tangible interests in Tripoli was doubtless a major cause for their acceptance of that verdict. The instance indicates clearly a lack in the Hague Convention, and constructive pacifism cannot do better than accept the lesson and work for the prevention of similar instances in the future. In the very nature of things, of course, opportunities for territorial aggrandizement are growing less, and where they exist are usually so complicated that no power dares to take a hostile initiative. It would probably not be too much to state that the Turco-Italian war was made possible simply by the lack of any but Turkish and Italian interests in Tripoli.

A movement as diversified in its points of contact with public, political, social and moral questions as is the peace movement is naturally exceedingly difficult to summarize in a word. The attempt, however, is sometimes worth trying and it would seem to the writer that at the present moment the peace movement, as a great public force, has clearly made the moral field a conquered province and is definitely waging its present campaign in the practical fields of economics and international affairs.

THE ANNUAL ARMAMENT BUDGETS OF TEN NATIONS

Country	Fiscal Year	Expended for Army	Expended for Navy	To. Military Charge
Austria-Hungary	1911	\$ 73,513,000	\$ 13,731,000	\$ 87,244,000
France	1911	187,632,000	83,286,000	270,918,000
Germany	1911-12	203,938,000	114,508,000	318,446,000
Great Britain	1910-11	138,800,000	203,020,000	341,820,000
Italy	1911-12	81,033,000	39,643,000	120,676,000
Japan	1911-12	49,196,000	43,405,000	92,601,000
Russia	1911	265,642,000	54,128,000	319,770,000
Spain	1911	37,671,000	13,696,000	51,367,000
Turkey	1911-12	42,071,000	6,223,000	48,294,000
United States	1910-11	162,357,000	120,729,000	283,086,000
Totals		\$1,241,853,000	\$692,369,000	\$1,934,222,000

Including the Anglo-Indian army, but excluding all militia, gendarmerie, and colonial forces, the total annual military charge of the world approximates \$2,250,000,000. Can international wisdom offer no relief?



BELOW is a translation of the speech delivered on March 13, 1904, by Señor Raimundo Silva Cruz, Minister of Foreign Affairs for Chile, upon the occasion of the dedication of the international peace monument, the Christ of the Andes, which stands upon the border line between Chile and Argentina.

GENTLEMEN: For many centuries the great events of history have been events of war, the deeds of captains, the conquests of monarchs. Struggle has been the normal condition of peoples, war the ideal of nations; peace has been the exception, regarded as a sign of decadence. It has seemed as though the human race, born in accordance with the law of creation and of life, was seeking to convert this law into one of destruction and of death.

Fortunately, gentlemen, the march of history in modern times has brought with it a complete transformation. Now that the peoples of the world are concentrated in vast groups, their laws of living regulated, their respective spheres of action marked out, they are, to-day, devoting their efforts towards improving conditions of life instead of causing death; towards creating instead of destroying. The development of moral and intellectual education, of industrial activity and of means of communication has brought with it a new era, and to-day peace is the normal condition of nations, as well as the ideal of humanity as a whole. War is the abnormal condition, the state of illness. It has become only a last unfortunate resort.

Chile and the Argentine Republic, linked in their cradles by indestructible bonds, have given an eloquent example of these tendencies, and are proving that, though born but yesterday to the estate of sovereign nations, they have already identified themselves with this movement, and absorbed the modern spirit like an influx of new blood. We have established peace, we have guaranteed brotherhood in this part of the American continent, and we have thus laid the foundations of progress for these peoples.

To-day mutual confidence unites the hearts that beat on both sides of these mountains. To-morrow the countries will be united by the railroad. Still later capitalistic, industrial and commercial relations will unify our interests. This triple bond will enhance the greatness of both nations, and history will blazon the memory of this day on which we have come together to consecrate that union at the foot of this monument, a splendid work of art, raised upon the grandest of pedestals, nature's work; at the foot of the Divine Apostle of brotherhood, of Him who wrote within the human breast the sublime command: "Love one another." Symbol of friendship, placed upon the boundary line of two brother peoples, the image of the Christ of Peace will rise from earth toward heaven in the pure ether

of the mountain heights, bidding coming generations of Argentinos and of Chilians: "Keep high your gaze and thought; lower them not to that which causes division; fix them forever on the common good."

There was a time when oceans were impassable because of the inadequate methods at man's disposal. They were abysses separating nations. Modern progress has succeeded in converting them into most valuable means of communication between peoples and of commercial interchange. So these mountains, seemingly a mighty wall of separation, a well-nigh insurmountable barrier, stand converted by the grace of God, from to-day onward forever, into a door of union and a guarantee of mutual respect. Nature placed them between the countries clearly to mark for each her proper sphere of action and of influence, the one on the side of the Atlantic, the other looking toward the Pacific. Both countries wisely appreciated this truth, and they have established peace upon a firm foundation.

Future generations will be able to appreciate at its full value the consummation of international brotherhood achieved by the treaties of the month of May, whose eloquent and expressive climax is the solemn consecration which we have just witnessed. Future generations will see the full development of the consequences of this momentous act; they will see how peace brought power to these republics, whose strength war would have annihilated; they will see that, because their resources were not wasted in fighting or in making ready for war but were, on the contrary, wisely used in industry and in preparing for progress, they were prosperous and always respected by other nations.

Chile, for her part, gentlemen, will appreciate this act; she will carry on the work of American administration nobly laid down in the treaty of May, and she will honor the names of those statesmen connected with it, especially of their Excellencies the Presidents of Argentina and of Chile.

Chile will remember also with gratitude the friendly ministrations of the British government, and of its worthy representative who is with us to-day, and who exercised so zealous and so noble an influence in the first steps of this work of brotherly concord; and she will regard with especial esteem the name of Señor Terry, whose personality has won the deepest affection of all Chilians, and whose mission found a ready response from them, because it was a mission of peace, and because, given the object of the embassy and the spirit of the people welcoming it, it could not have been a mission of war.

In the name of Chile and her government I recognize the beautiful meaning of this occasion; I acknowledge the kind thoughts made manifest concerning my country and her people, and I beg that I may be allowed, since I was the negotiator of the peace and am to-day the head of my country's cabinet, to make use of my high position to become the interpreter of our sincere wishes for the prosperity of the Government and of the people of the Argentine Republic.

The Vesper Hour*

Under the direction of Chancellor John H. Vincent

"Let Us Have Peace"

By Dr. J. H. Jowett of the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church,
New York City.

"Blessed are the peacemakers, for they shall be called the children of God."—*Matthew 5,9.*

LET us not begin with any mistaken assumption that these peacemakers are weak people, without vision, without conviction, without strength. They are not people bereft of ideal, and susceptible to no pang. They are not devoid of aspiration, experiencing no dissatisfaction and unrest. They are not numb to the presence of wrong, and therefore possessed of no passion for right. They do not go about mildly offering ointments for dislocated

*The Vesper Hour continues throughout the year the ministries of the Chautauqua Sunday Vesper Service.

limbs, and cosmetics for polluted blood. No, the "peacemakers" are not the blind and the deaf, the insensitive and the indifferent. I would remind you that these beatitudes must be taken in their wholeness, and that every one of them requires the strength and presence of every other. The beatitudes do not describe different types of characters: they describe varied characteristics of the same character. And therefore the peacemakers have all the energies and experiences of the blessed life. They "see God." They mourn for sin. They have the fortitude which can encounter storms of persecution "for righteousness' sake." They are strong enough to rejoice when they are reproached and maligned for Christ's sake, and they hear the coming shout of victory in the cloudy day of apparent defeat. These are the scriptural "peacemakers," not soft weaklings, but the sons and daughters of power and vision, children of chivalry, hating the wrong, while yearning and striving for the establishment of the Kingdom of God.

Now with that preliminary taste of their quality let us turn our minds to meditation upon their work. And let us begin with the royal and lofty end of the great beatitude. Let us begin with the statement of their relation. "They shall be called the children of God;" and from the relation let us pass to the statement of the action and life.

"They shall be called the children of God." Why shall they bear that name? Because they are "peacemakers" after His spirit, after His fashion and likeness. They have caught His ways. They have shared His purposes. They have incarnated His spirit. They have manifested His glory. They "shall be called children" because they are "the Father over again!" What, then, is the Father like, that we may find His resemblance in the children? How does the Father make peace? Let us seek our guidance in the pages of the Old and New Testaments.

I turn, then, to the Old Testament. How does the Father make peace? And here are the responses to my groping question. "The work of righteousness shall be peace;" "Righteousness and peace have kissed each other;" "O that thou hadst hearkened to my commandments, then had thy peace been like a river." What is the common significance of the words? It is this. The Father-peace-maker seeks peace through rectitude. Peace is the fruit of certain prepared conditions. Peace is not something imposed: it is something produced. It is an outgrowth, not a deposit. It is a culmination, not a foundation. It comes into being when certain other things are done. Peace is frictionless movement, and, therefore, everything must be righteously balanced, and there must be no grit or gravel

in the wheels. This is true in the realm of the body. Physical health is physical peace: it is frictionless action, and for this every organ must be rightly related to every other organ, in quiet co-operative movements. This is true in the realm of the power working with power in frictionless movement, will and desire at one with conscience, and affection serenely in consort with all. And the principle holds true in the realm of society. Social peace is the fruit of social health. Or, if you please, it is frictionless movement in the body corporate, member working with member in the serenity of just relations. "The work of righteousness is peace." This is the way of the heavenly Peacemaker, our gracious Father in Heaven, and, therefore, they who are "called the children of God" are making peace in the Father's way. They labor for equitable relations, because the dove of peace builds her nest in the haunts of righteousness, and she builds it nowhere else. And, therefore, we shall not find the children-peacemakers going about merely mortaring bulging walls when the Father's way is to make them straight. They do not prescribe pretty wallpapers when it is a case of bad drains. They do not prescribe soft words for dislocated limbs. This rather is their way, because it is the way of the Father: "Seek ye first the kingdom of righteousness, and these things," including peace, "shall be added unto you." When right relations are restored the angel of peace will come to abide. "Blessed are the peacemakers."

But now turn to the New Testament for further guidance upon the Father's way. And here we shall be led into deep and mysterious realms, but not without finding a lamp for our own road. How does the Father make peace? And here is the answer, partly hidden in veiling cloud, and yet brightly radiant with grace and love. "Having made peace through the blood of the Cross." I want to enter the Father's realm of grace that I may bring back a guiding light for my own road. I want to reverently gaze upon the Father's way that I may know what must be the way of "the children." And what do I find? "Having made peace through the blood of the Cross." The Father made peace through restored relations, and this through the ministry of sacrifice. "Ye were not redeemed with corruptible things . . . but with blood." At present I want nothing more than this from this inexhaustible treasury of grace: The Father sought and made peace at the cost of His own sacrifice. And may we not reverently say that such must be the manner and ministry of those who would be the children of God? We are to be makers of peace through personal sacrifice, through costly ways that demand our blood. Peace-making is not to be a light pastime, a cheap bit of by-play for the disengaged remnants

of our days. The peacemakers who are to be "called children of God" will leave red marks of blood along the road, and the blood will be their own. We are to "drink of the cup that He drank of," and so make peace. He "made peace by the blood of the Cross." "Blessed are the peacemakers," who in their own sphere make peace by the blood of their own cross, "for they shall be called the children of God."

Now let us take this lamp of Scripture guidance concerning the Father's ways and hold it above some of the disjointed and disordered affairs of men. Take it to family life, where there is cold aloofness, or heated quarrelsomeness and strife. Family life ought to be like the Master's seamless robe, but too often it is torn into shreds. And often again this tattered vesture is to be found in presumably Christian homes, where the Prince of Peace is supposed to dwell. Well, what shall we do? What ought we to do? I mean we who are here this morning, and who may be the torn shreds of the holy robe, what ought we to do? I know we think we have right on our side, and I know that peace can never prevail until the right is regnant. I know that, and I have just been proclaiming it from the sacred word. But then the Father-peacemaker has right on His side, and what did He do? "Having made peace by the blood of the Cross." You say you "won't budge!" The Father did! You say you "won't move a hair's breadth." It sounds like the strength of courage; it is really the weakness of cowardice. It is not valour for the truth, it is the recoil from Calvary, it is shrinking from your own cross. You say, "If he wants peace, he must make the first approach." And is that the Father's way? I thought that this told us the order of the heavenly doings: "We love because He first loved us."

"O not upon our waiting eyes
 Lord, did the heavenly lustre break:
 Not to our love's beseeching cries
 Did love divine slow answer make.
 We made no haste to seek Thy face,
 Thy angels found no listening ear:
 We did not urge Thy lingering grace
 Nor win Thy distant glory near.
 O, no! Thy voice was first to speak:
 Thy glory, Lord, was swift to come:
 Thy love made gracious haste to seek
 And sweetly urge the wanderer home."

He made the first approach. "He emptied Himself." He "made peace through the blood of the Cross." And I do not hesitate to say that any family strifes and quarrels represented here this morning could be ended in a week, if only we are brave enough to crucify our pride and seek peace by the blood of our own cross.

"He that loseth his life shall find it." "Blessed are the peacemakers," who seek peace through their own cross, "for they shall be called," because they are "the children of God."

Take the lamp of the Father's ways, and carry it to wider fields; into the heated realms of social quarrels and disorders. The Old Testament has told us that peace will never make her home where righteousness cannot be found. Righteousness and peace are inseparable: they kiss each other in eternal communion: when righteousness is banished peace flies away. And there is glaring wrong between man and man, and there are crooked and unholy relations between class and class, and these must be rectified before peace is found. But the rectification will not be made without the shedding of blood: I do not mean the blood of fierce war, but the blood of holy sacrifice. Oh, it is a blessed and mighty thing when strength itself will bleed to nourish the weak, when advantage itself will shed its blood for the sake of the disadvantaged, and the forlorn! It is a blessed, and winning, and reconciling thing when capital deals justly with labor, when rights are revered, and common need finds equitable satisfaction in the common bounty. But when strength immures itself in its own pride, and clings to advantage that sheds no blood, there can be no rectitude, and, therefore, no peace. And therefore it is that for social peace we need other sacrificial ministries, men and women who will shed their blood in the cause of social rectification and civic health. Let us thank God for such chivalrous servants of the commonwealth, who might have spent their days in the bloodless whirl of selfish delights, but who spend themselves for the common good, and who seek and "make peace in the blood of their own cross." "Blessed are the peacemakers," who toil and moil in the sacred cause of social equity, who make peace by the blood of their cross, "for they shall be called the children of God."

Take the lamp to still wider fields, to the whole family of man, to the estrangement of nation and nation, to the hideous twilight, where the frowning, ominous clouds of war are never out of the sky. My brethren, look around on the perilous, provocative, explosive elements which are about us today. There is the unhealthy and obtrusive emphasis of armaments. Everywhere they are given pre-eminence. At coronations and state ceremonials they are accorded the first place, to the subordination of the tokens and captains of industry, and the leaders of literature, and science, and art. And secondly, there are the brooding jealousies, which even at the best of times lie around the world like sleeping curs. And thirdly, there is the bleeding of the judgment of fierce and unclean passion, the blunting of discernment, the perverted sense of honor—

all of which you can see at work in the relations of England and Germany today. And fourthly, you have the barbarities of war, which John Bright described as "The combination and concentration of all the horrors, atrocities, crimes, and sufferings of which human nature on this globe is capable"—and the confirmation of those words may be found in the appalling condition of Tripoli today. And lastly, when war is over, when homes have been decimated and families have been riven, when the battle has gone to the swift and the strong, who knows that the right has prevailed? At the end of the war, in the triumph of the mighty, the wrong may be enthroned.

These are some of the perilous elements with which we have to deal. What shall we do? Let us listen again to the Master's words, "Blessed are the peacemakers." And how shall peace be made between nation and nation when affairs are tending to misunderstanding and alienation and strife? How does the Father make peace? "Having made peace by the blood of the Cross." And Oh, I would that some great Christian nation would, in some time of dispute, make peace by the blood of its own cross, by some sublime act of glorious sacrificial magnanimity! I would that some Christian nation would disown the axiom that the law of nations is the law of the beasts, and "laying aside every weapon of carnal warfare," would rely for her continued existence upon the powers of reason, "upon the service she would render to the world," and the testimony she would bear to Christ. You may deride the suggestion as ideal, but what am I here for but in the ministry of the ideal, and amid the fog of worldly compromises and experiences, to keep its radiant dignities in sight? And it may be, as a man of statesmanlike mind declared some years ago, "it may be that a nation martyred for Christ's sake may be within the counsel of God," a nation which sought to make peace by the blood of its own cross.

Meanwhile there is a bright light in the troubled day, and the fountain of that light is the President of the United States. From him have come proposals by which the reign of passion, and the consequent perils of feverish judgment as perceptible action will be greatly lessened and allayed. The proposals are concerned with the relations of the United States and Great Britain and France, and they provide that "all differences hereafter arising between" these nations, "which it has not been possible to adjust by diplomacy, relating to international decision by the application of the principles of law and equity, shall be submitted to a Permanent Court of Arbitration." These proposals register a mighty step forward into the light, and I am firmly convinced that if they are approved, in the ages to come they will constitute no small part of the national glory

of this country, and that they will invest with undying honor the memory of the courageous man in whose noble statesmanship they were born. Meanwhile the proposals must not be imperilled by the silence of the churches or by any lukewarm Christian support. Our course is clear. In the name of the Prince of Peace we must strengthen the President by prayer and speech, and deed, and here and now register our aspiration and endeavor after that bright and happy day when "nation shall not lift up sword against nation, neither shall they learn war any more."



PEACE

My soul, there is a country,
Afar beyond the stars,
Where stands a winged sentry,
All skilful in the wars.
There, above noise and danger,
Sweet Peace sits crowned with smiles,
And One born in a manger
Commands the beauteous files.
He is thy gracious friend,
And (O my soul, awake!)
Did in pure love ascend,
To die here for thy sake.

If thou canst get but thither,
There grows the flower of peace,
The rose that cannot wither,
Thy fortress and thy ease.
Leave then thy foolish ranges;
For none can thee secure,
But One who never changes
Thy God, thy Life, thy Cure.

—Henry Vaughan.



NEW AMERICAN YEAR READERS

The complete American Year—four books and all THE CHAUTAUQUAN Magazines for the reading year—can easily be read during the spring months or in the summer vacation if preferred. No one is in so good a position to convince others of the value and practicability of doing this as those who have enthusiastically taken the course. Each member of the C. L. S. C. has received a special letter providing the very extraordinary incentive of complimentary subscriptions to the *Outlook* or *Literary Digest* for securing new readers now. Look up this letter again and help to spread Chautauqua Reading where you know that it will do good.



ANNUAL CERTIFICATE

The Annual Certificate for 1912 will be a beautiful picture of the "Christ of the Andes." Application blanks may be secured from the Extension Office, Chautauqua, New York, and when returned should be accompanied by six cents for postage. Look up page 136 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1911, for full particulars.



LETTER CIRCLES FOR THE CLASS OF 1912

The scheme of letter circles developed some years ago by Miss Una B. Jones of the Class of 1908 has been so heartily welcomed by members of various classes who would like to keep in touch with each other during the year, that

their number is increasing. It is an especially good plan for lone readers who by this means have a chance to share in the comradeship of other Chautauquans. This is especially applicable at this time to the members of 1912, who are soon to graduate. Any members of the Shakespeare Class who would like to join one of these letter circles will find the way made easy for them by writing to Miss Una B. Jones, Stittville, New York, who will give them the desired opportunity.



AN EXTRA SEAL FOR GRADUATES

Many graduates who are perhaps taking special courses or who are interested in some rather exacting line of work, want, nevertheless, to keep in touch with Chautauqua developments and their fellow Chautauquans by having THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month. Such graduates who are reading the three required series in the Magazine may earn a seal for work by filling out correctly the special review paper which will be found on page 425 of the Magazine. Don't let your Chautauqua diploma fail to win a seal for its adornment each year. You will enjoy the experience.



NEW HAVEN WINTER GATHERING

The New Haven Chautauqua Union held a notable meeting on February 28 in the Y. M. C. A. banquet hall of that city. More than a hundred members were present and addresses were made by Dr. J. W. Seaver, for many years the head of the School of Physical Education, and by Rev. E. E. Dent of New Haven on "Connecticut's Part in the Formation of the Federal Government," a very timely subject in view of the C. L. S. C. interest in its present "American Year's" course. Miss Helen Gauntlet Williams rendered several solos and the evening as a whole contributed much to the good fellowship so characteristic of Chautauqua.

THE VALUE OF A SURVEY

If you happened to be a commander in war time instead of what you are—a pacifist in these piping times of peace—you would send up your air men to get a general plan of the city you were besieging, and from the knowledge they brought down to you, you would plan your attack. If you want to get the most out of a book you read it through from cover to cover first, and after this rapid survey you go back and read it slowly, noticing every point, making yourself confident on every detail, and attacking with especial vigor the parts from whose study you can gain most. Try this method on the next worth-while book you take up and see if it does not double its value for you.



WRITE TO PENDRAGON

The Round Table would be glad to know about successful final programs. Address the Editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, 23 Union Square, New York City, and tell him all about it. If you have kodaks of any scenes or characters or groups or meeting places, send them on.



CHAUTAUQUANS IN THE MAKING

The recent celebration of Bishop Vincent's eightieth birthday has brought very prominently into public attention the fact that the Chautauqua idea is destined to be a world idea. Instances of the growing eagerness for education and of the spread of highly enlightened notions among the leaders of education is cheering evidence of the ever-widening spirit of human brotherhood and the resulting attempt to make life more worth while for others. A recent book "Among the Danes," by Miss Butlin, shows how a movement in some respects resembling Chautauqua is making itself felt among the Danish people. She tells how the Jutland peasants, shrewd bargainers though they are and likened to the thrifty Scots, have, like the Scotsmen, an aspiration for higher things. In the autumn after the har-







Froman's Ferry near Caldwell, Idaho, where there is a flourishing circle



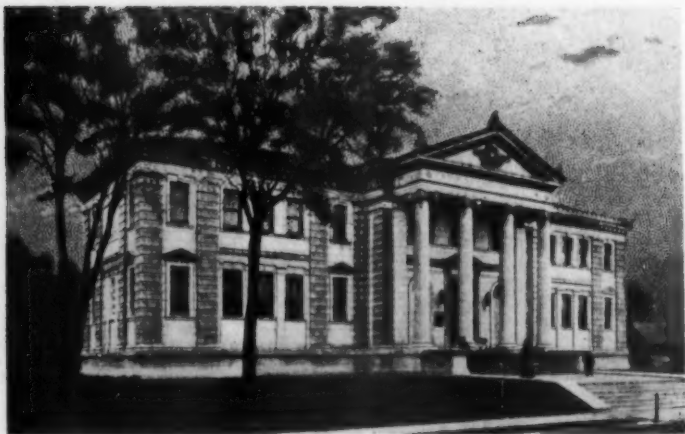
Old Lighthouse at Barcelona, New York. A favorite picnic spot for the Westfield Chautauquans



Wilhelmina C. L. S. C. of Tacoma, Washington



Listening to the band at the Pacific Grove, California, Assembly



Carnegie Library, Sedalia, Missouri. The C. L. S. C. has met here



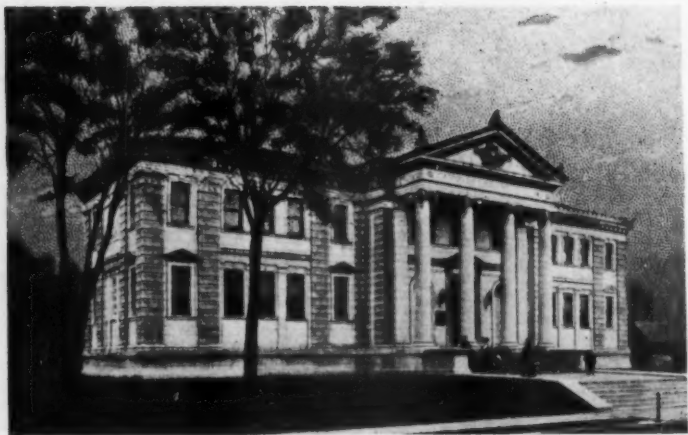
1911 Class at the Litchfield-Hillsboro (Illinois) Chautauqua



Some of the readers of the University C. L. S. C. of Seattle, Wash.



Listening to the band at the Pacific Grove, California, Assembly



Carnegie Library, Sedalia, Missouri. The C. L. S. C. has met here



1911 Class at the Litchfield-Hillsboro (Illinois) Chautauqua



Some of the readers of the University C. L. S. C. of Seattle, Wash.



Marshall College, State Normal School, Huntington, West Virginia. In the parlors of this building meets the Huntington Woman's Club of which many C. L. S. C. readers are members



Court House, Butler, Missouri



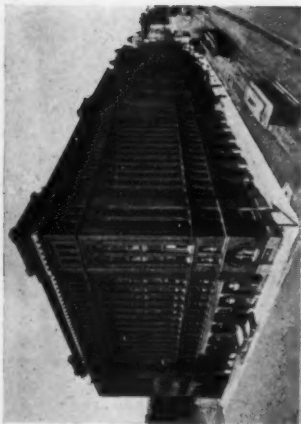
Parlor of the Elizabeth Gamble Deaconess' Home, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Franklin Circle finds this a pleasant meeting place



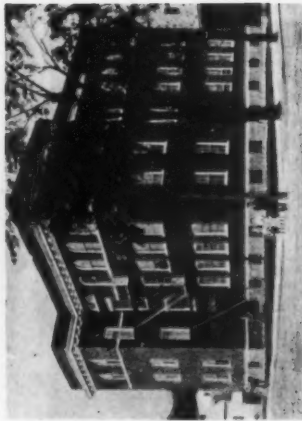
In each of these houses lives a member of the Victoria Circle of Oil City, Pa.



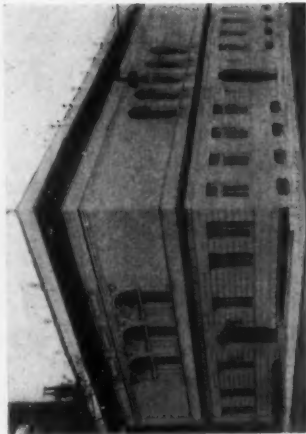
Hospital



Collar Factory



School



Library

The Ilium Circle of Troy, New York, has members who are nurses, teachers, and collar factory employees, and they all read in the library



Executive Committee and Heads of Departments



A club of young married C. L. S. C. readers

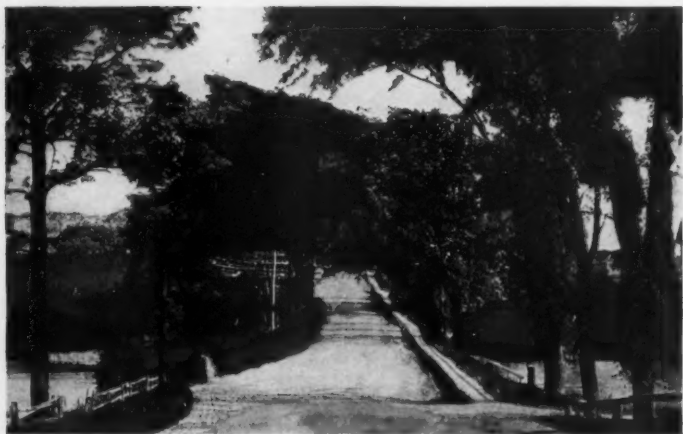


Platform decorations, Portrait of Bishop Vincent presented by the Winfield Alumni Association on Recognition Day

Winfield (Kansas) Assembly; Quarter Centennial Session, 1911



Drive in Roscoe Conkling Park, Utica, New York



Between the ponds, Pocasset, Massachusetts, where the Progressive Circle of Brockton picnics occasionally



vests, certain high schools are thrown open to the farming men and women for a two or three days' intellectual diversion. The halls are crowded, the larger part of the audience being farmers, many of whom with their wives engage rooms for the period, and bring their bedding with them. Lectures on an astonishing variety of subjects show that the Danish peasant is ready to consider "Islam," "Armenia," and "Personality," as well as "Gladstone" and "Charles Darwin." Before and after each lecture a song or hymn is sung by the audience and in the evenings there are entertainments such as skillful reading of Hans Christian Anderson's Farmyard Sketches, always received with enthusiasm, and the rendering of a translation of Aristophanes' "Days," by a well-known actor who came from Copenhagen. The Danes are keen critics and enjoy their lectures as much as the typical Scotsman does his sermon, finding it something to ruminate on at his leisure.

In the Orange Free State, South Africa, educational enthusiasm has actually made its appeal to the farming population in terms of a Chautauqua. A newspaper from that interesting country tells of a recent journey by the Director of Education through this part of his field. The report tells how he found at Kestell, a place already made familiar to us by reports in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, "a most interesting gathering." "It was a gathering of between 300 and 400 farmers and their families who had come in from all parts of the district and the surrounding districts to listen to papers and discussions on purely literary and scientific subjects. The idea of holding such gatherings is that of the Rev. J. J. Ross of Witzieshoek, who saw them during a visit to the United States, where they are called by the Indian name of "Chautauqua." Hitherto, said Dr. Viljoen, farmers had been prepared to sacrifice two or three hours from home only for religious purposes, and latterly, also, to attend shows, and it was most gratifying and encouraging now to find them willing to make the same sacrifices in the

interests of culture. The "Chautauqua" was held in a large tent, and well-known men delivered lectures on "Art," another on the Boer settlement in the Argentine; and one by a member of the Agricultural Department, on "Agriculture." Dr. Viljoen himself addressed the gathering on the present position of education in the Free State."



SOME OF MISS HAMILTON'S EXPERIENCES

Miss Meddie Ovington Hamilton, the C. L. S. C.'s accomplished Field Secretary, has been visiting Chautauqua localities in the Far West. She had the pleasure of a personal interview with Dr. J. Allen Smith, whose book, "The Spirit of American Government" has stirred the thinking powers of Chautauquans and resulted in very earnest and thoughtful discussions. In a letter received in response to a question from the *Winfield Chautauqua News*, he writes concerning the new points of view advocated by his book:

"In the University of Washington, the courses on government have been presented from this point of view for the last twelve years. There was a good deal of hostile criticism at first, but it has now almost entirely disappeared. The book has had a much more favorable reception than I expected. In writing the volume I was not thinking of its use as a text book. My only object was to present an interpretation of American institutions that the facts would support. The ultra-conservatives have no use for it, but the fact that I am still in the University of Washington shows that the people of this state at least are not now hostile toward it. I may add that such attacks as have been made on me in the past have come from representatives of special privilege and have failed to accomplish their purpose because public opinion did not support them."



HOW ONE CHAUTAUQUA KEEPS UP INTEREST

The Winfield Chautauqua in Southern Kansas has from the first had its face turned to the rising sun. It keeps watch over its territory and has always held up high Chautauqua ideals and so won the approval of all the surrounding communities that when Wichita, a large town and railroad center, twenty-five miles distant, was urged to develop a Chautauqua of its own, the scheme was promptly quelled by loyal Chautauquans. "No," they said, "we will not do

anything to impair the usefulness of Winfield which first kindled its torch at the Chautauqua fire and has kept it burning wondrously clear ever since."

The Winfield Chautauqua publishes a paper. It is an enterprising little sheet and Mrs. Dora Kerschner, who watches over the C. L. S. C. interests of the paper, sends out the following "Suggestive Points for News Items." As a result she gathers up many rich experiences and keeps the people of Kansas reminded of the "School for Out-of-School People" which they may attend for the asking:

1. Tell about origin and present size of your Circle.
2. Any new plans taken up this year?
3. Have you any members who have traveled abroad? Any who have visited at Chautauqua, N. Y.? When?
4. What summer assembly do you attend and what help do you get from this? What plans for next summer?
5. How are you enjoying the "American Year?"
6. Have you made the Chautauqua influence felt in the community?
7. Do your people continue reading after they graduate?
8. Do you keep in touch with the Mother Chautauqua by means of the Chautauquan Weekly?



1912 REPORT BLANKS

Each member of the Class of 1912 should receive during the month of May a circular entitled "Report Blank and Final Address to the Graduating Class." This circular contains spaces for report of the four years' reading and of any other work which has been done, together with the dates of Recognition Day at various Chautauqua Assemblies and the time limit for sending in reports.

Any member of 1912 who does not have this blank in hand by June 1 should notify the office at Chautauqua, New York.

The blanks described above should be returned promptly by people who wish to receive their diplomas at Chautauqua or at some other Assembly.

Members to whom diplomas are to be sent by mail need not finish their reading until October first. Readers who are eager to graduate at an Assembly should not be discouraged if they are somewhat behind in their work now,

for wise management of time accomplishes wonders. It should be remembered that no written examinations are required. Reporting the four years' reading to the Chautauqua office and paying the proper fee is all that is necessary to secure a diploma. Seals may be added to the diploma by the answering of review questions, but this may be postponed a little if necessary.

1912's Recognition Day at Chautauqua will be August 14. The Baccalaureate Sermon will be preached on Sunday, August 11, by Bishop John H. Vincent, Chancellor of Chautauqua Institution.



"ORDER YOUR DIPLOMA, 1912"

Chautauqua Institution's seal of approval for work well done is worth having. The bit of vellum is a symbol of perseverance and courage, and a reminder of happy hours.



NEW CHAUTAUQUA READING COURSE

Of the world-wide struggle for social progress it is vitally important to get an international view if one is to understand the age in which we live. People in the German Empire may use different methods from ours or from those of their nearer neighbors in the family of nations, but they are after the same results—individual efficiency, social justice, national welfare. Is it conceivable that any nation could ever again resort to a French Revolution? The Chautauqua Reading Course for the coming year will give an enlightening bird's-eye view of the most significant modern European developments. Supplementary studies of Italian Art, German Home Life, and French Literature will round out the popular group of subjects.

The first book to be taken up will be "Social Progress in Contemporary Europe," by Frederic Austin Ogg, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of History in Simmons College. Mr. Ogg sketches the general aspects, social and political, of

Europe in the 18th century, studies France under the old régime, in the Revolution, and under Napoleon, and shows the changes in agriculture and industry in England in the early part of the 19th century, with the resulting growth of democracy. Popular government on the continent fills a group of four chapters of absorbing interest, and the book ends with a careful and scholarly summary of the development throughout Europe of legislation and service for social betterment, with a sketch of the advance of the freedom of the individual, and of the growth of socialism. Mr. Ogg is a thorough student of history on its philosophical and social side, a college professor, and the author of several valuable books on historical themes.

The second book to be studied will be "Mornings with Masters of Art," containing 125 illustrations. The author is Dr. H. H. Powers, whose connection with the Bureau of University Travel has made him even more widely known than has his work in more conventional educational lines at Madison, Oberlin, Smith, Leland Stanford, and Cornell. In this volume Dr. Powers has given for the first time the substance of the searching, critical and descriptive talks which he has for years been giving to his European travel groups. Beginning with Greek painting and its adaptation by the Romans, he traces the development of Christian art (including mosaics and bronzes), the growth of art by reason of the enlarging vision of the master painters whom Italy gave to the world, its struggle to maintain its life in the Middle Ages, its wane and the rise of the humanist movement. The painters of Pisa and of Umbria, and the all-glorious work of Leonardo, of Raphael and of Michael Angelo are described with enthusiasm and detail. With no imaginative effort the reader fancies himself in famous European galleries listening to the skilful and instructive talks of this excellent art critic.

Third on the list is "Home Life in Germany," by Mrs. Alfred Sidgwick. The author is of German ancestry, and

she was born and reared and lives in England, so that she is able to write with a sympathetic appreciation of the national traits of the Germans as they are seen in their everyday living, while at the same time she views them with the perspective of an outside observer. The book is chatty and pleasant and at the same time informing.

During all the time that the above books are being read "The Spirit of French Letters" will be in hand. This is because it will be especially rewarding to read this survey of French literature in connection with the "Reading Journey in Paris," a study of the great city at different historical periods, which will run in THE CHAUTAUQUAN throughout the year. Mrs. Mabell S. C. Smith, assistant editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, is the author both of the book and the magazine series. Mrs. Smith, whose interest in things French has been life-long, is making a trip to Paris this spring, for the especial advantage of this Reading Journey.

The leading series in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be "European Rulers: Their Modern Significance," by Arthur E. Bestor, director of Chautauqua Institution. Mr. Bestor is widely known as a teacher and student of and lecturer on political history, and this series will be of exceptional value both in itself and as supplementing Mr. Ogg's book. The personal characteristics of the modern rulers of whom we read in every paper we take up, and their real influence upon their countries, make a fascinating subject for interpretation at the present day. Mr. Bestor is in Europe now gathering material for his articles.



CHAUTAUQUA DAY IN 1913

The Greenfield, Indiana, Chautauquans organized a Society of the Hall in the Grove on Bishop Vincent's birthday, February 23. This was surely a most fortunate occasion. Why should not other Chautauquans act upon this suggestion? This year, as our Chancellor marks his four-score years, significant in great services to the American

people, let all Chautauquans determine to mark Chautauqua Day, February 23, for the future perpetuation of Chautauqua ideas. What if it is a common saying that people are too busy to go to meetings? There must be some occasions when enthusiasm in a good cause may have a chance to show the real vigor of its faith. A Society of the Hall in the Grove is practical in any community—even the busiest. It does not involve a weekly or bi-weekly meeting. S. H. G. simply means a town association of graduates with one grand rally day during the year when the name of Chautauqua shall be observed with as much spirit as is now bestowed upon Washington's Birthday, Peace Day, or any other great day in the life of the people. Chautauqua Day should be the signal for rallying all graduates. It might be an occasion for an S. H. G. banquet, such as are already observed by various groups of graduates, a time when all new graduates of the previous year are welcomed, when next year's plans may be discussed, a committee or two appointed and in the following autumn when the new year opens, churches encouraged to hold Chautauqua vesper services, the local papers supplied with special articles and in other ways the community be reminded of the living force of the Chautauqua idea.

In this day of many organizations, we may emphasize the fact that Chautauqua utilizes for self-culture the spare moments of the individual—meetings need not be multiplied except as they spring up spontaneously—but let the S. H. G. with its one notable meeting each year on Chautauqua Day, February 23, be the mainspring which shall see to it that Chautauqua, America's unique pioneer in the education of the people, be enabled to extend more widely than ever its stimulating influence. It is worth remembering, all you who have felt the stimulating influence of the C. L. S. C., that Chautauqua means many things. It means not only self-culture for everybody, but broader educational ideas for the community, higher religious life and civic enthusiasm

and brotherhood. All of these things are a basic part of the Chautauqua idea. Chautauqua Day may be so utilized that it will come to be recognized in every town and village as an anniversary when works of signal importance to the community may be inaugurated. Chautauquans will show their faith in the idea by co-operating with all the best elements in the place to work for the uplifting of higher ideals among the people. The old world watches America. Every year foreigners visit Chautauqua to study this unique American idea. This is the time so to establish it everywhere that its significant name may be recognized by every visitor from the old world as America's contribution to the future educational life of every nation.



Verses Worth Memorizing

THE RHODORA

In May, when sea-winds pierced our solitudes,
I found the fresh Rhodora in the woods,
Spreading its leafless blooms in a damp nook,
To please the desert and the sluggish brook:
The purple petals, fallen in the pool
Made the black waters with their beauty gay;
Here might the red-bird come his plumes to cool,
And court the flower that cheapens his array.
Rhodora! if the sages ask thee why
This charm is wasted on the earth and sky,
Dear, tell them, that if eyes were made for seeing,
Then beauty is its own excuse for being.
Why thou wert there, O rival of the rose!
I never thought to ask; I never knew,
But in my simple ignorance suppose
The selfsame Power that brought me there,
brought you.

—Ralph Waldo Emerson.

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SUGGESTIONS FOR FINAL PROGRAMS

Roll Call—What I have enjoyed most this year and why.

Dialogue—between John Bull and Miss Columbia, each politely insisting on the other's merits as portrayed in "The 20th Century American."

Comparison—of Smith's "Spirit of American Government" with "The American Constitution," by Frederick Jesup Stimson.

Plan—of an original composite novel; plot outlined by one member, setting described by another, characters drawn by a third; illustrations provided by tableaux in costume.

Tableaux—scenes from some novel which was studied in connection with "Materials and Methods of Fiction;" accompanied by readings.

Address—on settlement work by a settlement worker.

Scenes—in South America—rooms decorated to represent a *patio*; photographs, books, curios, etc., on exhibition; members in costumes of different South American countries use conversation in keeping with the characters; quiz games on great men or history or natural resources or scenery.

Address—making local application of the information furnished by the articles on "American Engineering."

"*As We See Ourselves*" impersonated by nine characters in costume representing the literary forms discussed by Mr. Heydrick in his chapters. Each describes her work in the literary world either seriously or humorously.

A plan in which many of the above suggestions may be utilized is to devote the evening to the presentation of a copy of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. A frame bearing at the top the title in the accustomed lettering will serve as a setting. In addition to the numbers on the above list there might be

Fr ntispiece—Bishop Vincent's portrait; or tableau from some picture given in the magazine during the year.

History—of the year's work, read or recited by the Muse of History in up-to-date dress, representing the current events department, "Highways and Byways."

"*As We See Ourselves*"—see above.

"*A Reading Journey in South America*"—Reading in costume from "Maria" by Jorge Isaacs, translated by Rollo Ogden.

Song—(apply to the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C., for information about all South American material, music, poetry, etc.)

"*American Engineering*." See above. Or humorous sketch of the circle as a solid reinforced concrete construction made up of pebbles (members) stiffened by steel rods (officers).

Tableau—"The Very Latest"—a small baby or a new frock, or the most recent CHAUTAUQUAN.

Talk—summarizing the supplementary articles on "Latest" activities which have been appearing throughout the year.

Recitation—"America the Beautiful" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for 1912.

Vesper Hour—quotations for roll call.

Library Shelf—Reading from some Library Shelf of the year.

Round Table—Scene representing delegates sitting around a table

with Pendragon. Each gives a paragraph of information or advice or news.

Talk About Books—pages dressed to represent well-known books serve leaves (of lettuce), etc., etc.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAM FOR THE HUNDREDTH ANNIVERSARY OF BROWNING'S BIRTH, MAY 7

1. *Browning the Man*. Biographical sketch.
2. *Browning the Lover*. Illustrated by readings from the "Love Letters" and from the "Portuguese Sonnets" as they fit in; "By the Fireside;" "One More Word."
3. *Browning the Dramatist*. Illustrated by readings from "The Blot on the 'Scutcheon'."
4. Song from "Pippa Passes."
5. *Browning's Use of the Dramatic Monologue*. Illustrated by reading of "My Last Duchess."
6. *Browning the Novelist*. Story of "The Ring and the Book" and readings from "Pompilia" and "Caponsacchi."
7. *Browning's Philosophy*. "A man's reach should exceed his grasp;" "Grow old along with me, the best is yet to be;" optimism.
8. *Tributes*.
9. *Reading*. "Prospice;" "Epilogue."



NEWS FROM CIRCLES AND READERS

"Bishop Vincent's eightieth birthday anniversary has made us all feel like telling about celebrations," said Pendragon beamingly. "When are we to hear about the Bishop's birthday?" some one asked. "The June CHAUTAUQUAN is to be an Anniversary Number," answered Pendragon, and there will be in it the beloved Chancellor's latest picture, together with portraits of the beautiful box full of cards sent by loving friends, and some recent views of the Assembly Grounds at Chautauqua, New York." "Won't it be a beauty," cried the Man Across the Table. "It will," replied Pendragon succinctly. "I started to tell you," he went on, "about the work of the Chautauqua Circle of Canandaigua, New York, following their quarter-centennial, which they celebrated last June. First, here is the Circle's Year Book, nicely printed, with programs for the whole year, and containing a list of members and of graduates. There here is the invitation card for their Dickens celebration on February 12, and lastly, here is the written report." "Do read it," begged a pleading voice.

"The Canandaigua Chautauqua Circle which celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary last June might have felt justified, because of its age and achievements in ceasing its activities. Not so. It

entered upon the new year's work with its old-time interest and enthusiasm. On Labor Day its annual outing was held with its oldest member who was temporarily staying outside the village. On September ninth, a corn roast was enjoyed which was followed by the election of officers. The officers of the preceding year were re-elected. The president is serving his twenty-sixth year in that capacity. Can any other circle match this? The annual social of the circle was held February twelfth. Though the date was Lincoln's birthday the observance was in the nature of a Dickens celebration. The walls were hung with pictures of Dickens and scenes from his books and some reports of Dickens celebrations in New York City were given. One of the place cards is enclosed. On the reverse side was a quotation from Dickens (all different), name of guest or member, and affixed was a Dickens stamp. The evening's enjoyment proved a happy interruption to the round of study meetings. In the several contests the president was the successful contestant and his souvenir was a book entitled "Flowers from Dickens".

"What a vigorous mental and social life they all lead in Canandaigua, exclaimed a Kentuckian approvingly. "But they haven't a monopoly of enthusiasm. We in Danville are brimming with it. Our Woman's Club is going to take the course next year, and we already have two big circles, as well as some individual readers. The two girls' circles have had such an interesting time this winter. They have had several delightful joint meetings. Once we had a lecture on American Newspapers and it was fine. Another time a very interesting talk on the 'Twentieth Century American' was given by a Danville young man who has graduated from Harvard and traveled abroad. The President of our girls' college is to give us a talk on 'The Spirit of American Government,' so you see we have been quite ambitious. And what do you think? I have two circles outside of Danville, that call me 'mother,' and have a prospect of several more." "What a splendid work that is," some one commented, "encouraging these young women who are soon to be homemakers and to carry the Chautauqua influence into their married lives."

"California has the reputation of making things grow," said the delegate from San Diego. "We readers of the Aloha Circle think that it increases our working ability." "How does it show itself?" "Why, we not only do the regular reading course work, but in addition we have been studying Spanish, parliamentary law, and investigating California wild flowers." "You are a busy lot!" was the exclamation that went around the room. "I belong to the circle at Columbia Station," said an Ohio delegate. "We

pride ourselves on doing the most thorough sort of work." "I've no doubt you do, and enjoy it mightily," said Pen-dragon.

"The Sedalia Circle," said a Missourian, has been doing some interesting work in connection with Mr. Hamilton's fiction book. We recently had sketches of some leading writers, among them Joel Chandler Harris and Edward Everett Hale."

"The Youngstown Circle had a very amusing George Washington party in February," said an Ohio delegate, smiling at the recollection. "There were twenty-five members present and each was dressed to represent some state in the Union and was met at the door by George and Martha Washington. The house was decorated with flags and tiny flags were given as favors."

"The Eaton Circle of Des Moines had a Washington party, too," said a Des Moines delegate. "Our hostess's house was artistically draped with red, white and blue bunting, hung with innumerable flags and celebrated portraits of the beloved Washington and his co-workers, and it all made a beautiful patriotic demonstration. An immense banner of the Stars and Stripes hung in the reception hall and waved a hearty welcome to each guest as he entered the door. The program was appropriate and varied, and everybody enjoyed it immensely."

"That must have been very jolly," laughed an Alabaman, sympathetically. "We in Birmingham had the pleasure of listening to a talk from a lady who had been more than a year in South America, and who addressed the Huntsville Avenue Circle to our great delight." "Our gayeties during the year included a party for the husbands," said the delegate from Tulsa, Oklahoma. "We have them with us often," declared a Port Jervis New Yorker. "One of our happiest times was a meeting held at the house of some of our out-of-town friends. Our host sent in wagons which took the whole party out, and added the pleasure of a delightful drive to the other amusements of the evening. After the regular lesson there was supper, and after that a general program was enjoyed by everybody. Its liveliest features were the reading of a poem, 'Miss Emerald Green,' which described the first visit of 'Miss Emerald' to New York City, telling of her impressions of the city and its wonders, and the recitation of pithy, poetical squibs descriptive of each member of the circle. These squibs and the

poem were original, coming from the pens of some of the Chautauquans."

"The Chautauqua Union of Des Moines meets every month. It had an especially pleasant meeting in February. There was a patriotic drill, with musical accompaniment by the Women's Relief Corps, composed of sixteen women. This was followed by an address on 'The Part Woman may Have in the Making of Greater Iowa.' Then came a group of Indian songs." "The Thomasville Circle had a delightful musical evening in February," said a North Carolinian. "In deference to St. Valentine all the decorations were of red, and there were hearts everywhere." "It was a pleasant relaxation from your hard work," remarked Pendragon.

"Is there any one here from Bridgeport, Connecticut?" he asked. "I am," answered a man's voice. "Won't you tell us about the Westport Clerical Union?" "Indeed, I will. Westport is not far from Bridgeport, you know, and the clergymen of the town and its vicinity are members of the Union. It is a Chautauqua Circle and it was organized as a result of the efforts of several clergymen. It is the aim of the union to better all conditions in the community and at each meeting some interesting topic is discussed." "Such as what?" asked Pendragon. "I remember with especial pleasure a talk on the Big Brother Movement. It was most stimulating." "As it deserved to be," commented another Bridgeport man. "I belong to the Clayton Hamilton Circle, and on account of our name we have taken a sort of personal interest in Mr. Hamilton's book on fiction. We almost feel as if we were its authors, and we have analyzed it with the greatest care."

"Here is a letter from Kokomo which is full of Indiana enthusiasm," said Pendragon. "Read it, read it," cried many voices. "Both the C. L. S. C. (or Student's League as we are named here) and the Round Table are in flourishing condition. The C. L. S. C. has its regular study class on Tuesdays and a social and literary meeting once every month. The Round Table has its regular meeting the first Saturday of each month. Committees have been appointed to work for the summer Chautauqua Assembly when we hope to have Miss Hamilton with us." "Here are some clippings about a Conservation meeting under the auspices of the Chautauqua Student's League. Former vice-president Charles Warren Fairbanks was the speaker of the evening and his address

was

"'profoundly thoughtful, delightfully interesting, and strikingly earnest, Mr. Fairbanks brought to the people of Kokomo a broader, a more beautiful and a more comprehensive view of the conservation movement than was ever before presented to them.

'Mr. Fairbanks spoke for nearly two hours, and the audience—one of the most representative that ever assembled in the city and one which filled the main auditorium of Grace Church and overflowed into the galleries—heard him through to the end with an interest so intent as to leave not the least doubt that they were deeply impressed by his message.

'On the subject of conservation, Mr. Fairbanks is an enthusiast. The theme is one very near to his heart, and this fact is revealed by the earnestness with which he addresses himself to it. It is a subject on which he speaks authoritatively. The impulse to associate himself actively with the conservation movement came to Mr. Fairbanks just after he returned from his trip around the world. He had observed the pitiful and desolate looking cities and towns where trees had been cut away without discrimination. He saw what it meant to be "treeless and parkless" in visiting some parts of the world, particularly Spain and China. And then while on the continent he saw communities, especially in Germany, where a proper and systematic work of conservation had been in vogue—he saw how well provision had been made for parks and woodlots for future generations and of course the present one. He decided that this state, his home, should not suffer the fate of those where no attention had been paid to the subject, but rather that it enjoy an experience more like Germany.'

"Mr. Fairbanks' example shows how compelling one man's enthusiasm can be and how much an earnest leader can accomplish. We ought all of us to further conservation with all our might."

"I want to tell you about our celebration of the one hundredth birthday anniversary of Dickens's birth," said a delegate from the Vincent Circle of Pacific Grove, California. "We did enjoy ourselves mightily. After the regular lesson of the class was finished, the president of Vincent Circle introduced the Dickens program by telling of the preparations made all over the English speaking world for the celebration of the Dickens centenary. One member stated that it had been said that Dickens was the greatest "human interest" writer since Shakespeare, and that his books have a larger circulation than any other English novelist. In England and especially in Portsmouth, the place of his birth, large memorial meetings were held on Wednesday evening, February seventh, and King George and Queen Mary were present at these exercises. The speaker said that one of the most striking features of the Dickens memorial was the presentation of \$50,000 collected from the sale of Dickens memorial stamps, to the five grand-

daughters, all of whom, with the exception of one, have been obliged to earn their living as typists.

"The following interesting program paid a high tribute the the memory of one of the most loved English novelists: Roll call—Quotations from Dickens's work. Reading—A welcome to 'Boz' on his first visit to the West. Duet—"What Are the Wild Waves Saying?" from 'Dombey and Son.' Reading of a splendid article from *The Century*—"Dickens, the Man that Cheers Us Up." Reading—"Dickens in Camp," by Bret Harte. Solo—"Good Night Little Blossom," from 'David Copperfield.' Reading—"Sam Weller's Valentine," from 'Pickwick Papers.'

"The enjoyable program was closed with a lively game, 'The Muggleton Coach' from 'Pickwick Papers,' in which all heartily joined.

"At the conclusion of the game, the class was invited to the dining room where an 'Old Curiosity Shop' supper had been spread, to which all did full justice amid much merriment. The class voted the evening one of the finest they had ever spent."



C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—November second Sunday.	INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.
MILTON DAY—December 9.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.	INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.	ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.	RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.	
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.	
ADDISON DAY—May 1.	



OUTLINE FOR REQUIRED READING FOR JUNE

MAY 27-JUNE 3

"Venezuela and the Guianas" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "Reading Journey through South America," IX).

"The Interpreters" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "As We See Ourselves," IX).

"Scientific Management" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "American Engineering," IX).

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAM FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

MAY 27—JUNE 3

1. *Map Talk*. "Venezuela and the Guianas."
2. *Description*. "Venezuela's Possibilities" (see "Venezuela in 1910" in *Pan American Bulletin* for July, 1911).
3. *Book Review*. "The American as He Is" by Nicholas Murray Butler.
4. *Reading* of some of the material suggested in Mr. Heydrick's article.
5. *Discussion*. "How can we introduce scientific management into our homes?" (Make this discussion as definite and practical as possible. Each member should try to apply the principles to some household or personal matter, and then report on the experience).
6. *Reading* from Roosevelt's "American Ideals" or the Library Shelf of this number.



TRAVEL CLUB

Travel Clubs should be provided with Hale's "Practical Guide to Latin America," with a large map of South America, and with individual outline maps of South America and of each country in South America which each member may fill in as the study progresses. Photographs, picture postcards, or pictures in books of all buildings and places mentioned should be exhibited.

A general bibliography of the Reading Journey through South America will be found in the September Magazine. If any clubs or libraries can provide but two books for supplementary reading they should be Dawson's "The South American Republics" and Hale's "The South Americans." Of great contemporary interest is the "Bulletin" published by the Pan-American Union, Washington, D. C. This is a handsomely illustrated monthly magazine whose subscription price is \$1.00 a year. Every Travel Club will find a subscription worth while.

FIRST WEEK

1. *Map Talk*. "Venezuela."
2. *Roll Call*. "Great Names in Venezuela's History."
3. *Historical Sketch* (Akers's "A History of South America;" Dawson's "South American Republics," part II.)
4. *Explanation*. "Venezuela's Boundary Dispute with Great Britain" (Akers; "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature" under "Venezuela.")
5. *Paper*. "Mr. Cleveland, Venezuela, and the Monroe Doctrine" (Akers; *Nation*, February 18, 1909; "Cleveland's Presidential Problems;" Hale's "The South Americans.")
6. *Composite Biography*. "Castro" (*Review of Reviews*, October 1908; *Independent*, December 31, 1908; *Current Literature*, February, 1909; *North American*, September, 1905 and April, 1908; *Outlook*, April 11, 1908; *Living Age*, October 10, 1908 and many other references under "Venezuela" and "Castro" in the "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature;" Clarks's "Continent of Opportunity.")

SECOND WEEK

1. *Roll Call*. "Venezuela's Resources."

2. *Description*. "Venezuela's Possibilities" ("Venezuela in 1910" in *Pan American Bulletin* for July, 1911; "Industrial and Commercial Outlook in Venezuela" by Brown in *Review of Reviews*, February, 1905.)
3. *Original Story* with the scene laid in Caracas (Clark; Curtis's "Capitals of Spanish America;" Ruhl's "The Other Americans;" Hale's "Guide.")
4. *Paper*. "On the Orinoco" ("A Wasted Waterway" in *Scientific American* for November 25, 1905; "Naturalist in the Tropics" by Beebe in *Harper's Monthly* for March, 1909.)
5. *Book Review* of "Our Search for a Wilderness" by Blair and Beebe.
6. *Reading*. "Charming Caracas" by Brown in *St. Nicholas* for February, 1906, or "Caracas on the Day of the Independencia" by Heilprin in *Nation*, May 10, 1906.)

THIRD WEEK

1. *Map Talk*. "The Guianas."
2. *Book Review* of "Oversea Britain" by E. F. Knight.
3. *Reading* from "Indiana University Expedition to British Guiana" in *Science* for January 1, 1909.
4. *Talk*. "Moravians in South America" (Clark.)
5. *Report*. "The Process of Refining Sugar."
6. *Paper or Story or Poem*. "Sir Walter Raleigh and the Orinoco."

FOURTH WEEK

1. *Roll Call*. "Resources of the Guianas."
2. *Talk*. "The Manufacture of Cocoa."
3. *Reading* from "Journey among the Bushmen of Surinam" in *Missionary Review of the World*, November, 1907.
4. *Summary* of the Dreyfus case (references in "Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature.")
5. *Reading or Recitation* of "Dreyfus" by Palmer in *Current Literature* for September, 1906; and "To Dreyfus Vindicated" by Johnson in *Harper's Weekly* for August, 1911.
6. *Composite Book Summary*. "The Ten Republics" by Robert P. Porter (each chapter should be reported by a different person.)
7. *Symposium*. "What has meant the most to me in this year's study of South America."



REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MAY READINGS

AS WE SEE OURSELVES. CHAPTER IX. THE INTERPRETERS OF AMERICAN LIFE.

1. Who are the chief writers on American life as a whole?
2. What are Dr. Strong's conclusions as to a) the destiny of America, b) the shifting of power, c) our national perils?
3. What does Dr. Eliot regard as America's contributions to civilization?
4. How does Dr. Eliot look upon American journalism?
5. Upon America's production of a high type of woman?
6. Compare Dr. Eliot's judgment with Dr. Strong's.
7. What are the causes which, according to Dr. Butler, make us a united people?
8. What does he consider the characteristics of the American mind?
9. What is his opinion of a) the Middle West, b) the East as compared with the West,

c) American speech, d) money-getting, e) opportunity, f) the trusts, g) possible dangers? 10. What does Dr. van Dyke regard as the chief elements of the American character? 11. What is his comment on a) American humor, b) love of order, c) self-reliance, d) intensity, e) schools? 12. What is Prof. Coolidge's list of American traits? 13. What does he say of a) the change wrought by the war with Spain, b) our rule over our new possessions, c) the race problem? 14. What contradiction has been wrought in our own country? 15. Against what races is there prejudice? 16. What does Professor Coolidge say about our economic position? 17. What does Mr. Roosevelt regard as the dangers of American life? 18. A prominent fault? 19. To what are "special interests" entitled? 20. What is the importance of the Panama Canal? 21. What is Mr. Roosevelt's aim? 22. What does Mr. Sedgwick say of American women? 23. Of American men? 24. How does Mr. Heydrick answer Mr. Sedgwick? 25. What conflict does Mr. Sedgwick assert? 26. What does he declare to be the result of our industrial vanity? 27. In what groups does Mr. Heydrick class the criticisms of American life which have been studied in this series? 28. Summarize his summary of the a) conditions, b) national problems, c) characteristics of the average American.

READING JOURNEY THROUGH SOUTH AMERICA. CHAPTER IX. VENEZUELA AND THE GUIANAS.

Venezuela

1. Describe the topography of Venezuela? 2. In what does its beauty lie? 3. What is its size? 4. What historic interests are connected with it? 5. What natural qualities make it interesting? 6. What is the pleasantest route from Colombia to Venezuela? 7. To what is the name Maracaibo applied? 8. What contrasting scenery is viewed here? 9. How came "Venezuela" by its name? 10. What is Coro? 11. Curacao? 12. Of what importance is Puerto Cabello? 13. Describe La Guayra. 14. What is Macuto? 15. Describe the approach to Caracas. 16. The city itself. 17. Its "sights." 18. What is the scenery between Caracas and Puerto Cabello? 19. What is memorable about Trinidad? 20. Characterize the deltaic region of the Orinoco river basin. 21. Speak of the Orinoco system. 22. What examples of tropical life are to be seen? 23. What is the topography along the Orinoco? 24. What are Venezuela's resources? 25. What is the population? 26. How will the Panama Canal benefit commerce? 27. What is the government of Venezuela? 28. Who have been her famous men. 29. Discuss the work of Blanco. 30. Of Castro.

The Guianas

31. What is the size of the Guianas? 32. Speak of their topography? 33. What is the historical interest? 34. What is the population? 35. Say something of Georgetown. 36. What is the capital of Dutch Guiana? 37. How is French Guiana best known to us?

AMERICAN ENGINEERING. CHAPTER IX. SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT.

1. What are some of the occupations to which scientific management has been applied? 2. How may the law governing the best way of doing one's work be discovered? 3. What is "scientific management?" 4. Who is Frederick W. Taylor? 5. What was the situa-

tion at the Midvale Steel Works? 6. What did Mr. Taylor try to do when he became foreman? 7. What were the discoveries about the handling of pig iron? 8. What is meant by standardizing machines? 9. Operations? 10. What was the experience with the pulley boring machine? 11. How many motions were there in the old method of brick laying and what one especially required great expenditure of energy? 12. What is Mr. Gilbreth's method? 13. What are the duties of the management—the company—in establishing scientific management? 14. What is the importance of planning and how is it done? 15. How do the operations of the other departments fit in to that of the planning department? 16. What is the effect of the planning system upon the workman? 17. What is the operation of the day work method of pay? 18. How does scientific management alter this system? 19. How does it affect the foreman? 20. How does the bonus system quicken the whole shop? 21. Quote Mr. Taylor on scientific management.



SEARCH QUESTIONS ON JUNE READINGS

1. Who is Dr. Josiah Strong? 2. Who is Dr. Eliot? 3. Who is Dr. Butler? 4. Who is Dr. van Dyke? 5. What is the Sorbonne?
1. Why is pig iron so called? 2. What is the derivation of the word 'bonus'?



ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MAY READINGS

1. University of Wisconsin. 2. Cornell. 3. Western Reserve University and Cleveland College of Law. 4. American Magazine.
1. 1879-80. 2. "Travels Amongst the Great Andes of the Equator."
1. 1520. 2. The English admiral, Blake, fought with the Dutch admiral, Tromp, off Portland in February, 1653. The battle was indecisive.



GRADUATE MAGAZINE SEAL MEMORANDA

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON THE THREE REQUIRED SERIES IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN FOR 1911-1912.

Correct answering of these questions will entitle a graduate reader to a seal on the diploma. Number your sheet to correspond with this list of questions and send to C. L. S. C. Office, Chautauqua, New York.

1. Why have Americans accepted as true the idea that foreigners know us better than we know ourselves? 2. What novelists have been socialistic in tendency? 3. What artistic necessities govern purpose novels? 4. Name three successful American plays. 5. What was the effect of the passage of the international copyright law? 6. What process of growth is outlined in "The Fourth Estate?" 7. What is the significance of the three recent race problem plays? 8. What is the power of the drama? 9. Name five American poems referred to and the particular American ideal suggested which each embodies. 10. How does Whitman symbolize democracy? 11. How does the work of Markham meet that of Norris? 12. How do William James and Bliss Perry regard American intensity? 13. What

do Chapman, Grant, and Higginson say about New York society? 14. What is the right way of interpreting the newspaper picture of American life? 15. What are the four currents of the influence of the monthly magazines? 16. What paradox is proved by our humorists? 17. In what eight groups may American books on Economics and Sociology be arranged? 18. How are the problems interwoven? 19. State the change wrought in the United States by the war with Spain, as described by Professor Coolidge. 20. Summarize Mr. Heydrick's summary of the a) conditions, b) national problems, c) characteristics of the average American. 21. How did Spain and Portugal benefit from the early American discoveries? 22. Describe the civilization of South America at the time of the first white invasion. 23. From what colonial territories sprang the South American republics today, except Brazil? 24. What events characterized the war in which the colonists broke with the mother country? 25. Is a United States of South America conceivable? 26. Give statements proving the immensity of the Amazon. 27. What is said of the variety in the vegetable and the animal kingdoms? 28. Compare Argentina with the United States in size and transportation facilities. 29. How well provided with utilities is Buenos Aires? 30. What is the character of the Andean country? 31. What is said of Patagonia? 32. What is the size of the river Plate? 33. What good work was done by the Jesuit missions? 34. What is the historical interest of the Guianas? 35. What part is played in commerce by Peru and the republics north of her? 36. Mention some of the exports and imports carried by the West coasts. 37. What is the size and physical character of Peru? 38. Among what mountains did Frederick E. Church paint his "Heart of the Andes?" 39. What was "El Dorado?" 40. Describe the Orinoco river and the Orinoco system. 41. What importance today is laid on technical training? 42. Define the service of a) boiler, b) engine, c) condenser, d) feed pump, e) piping. 43. Give reasons for the popularity of the hot water heating system. 44. By what three methods may cold be produced? 45. What are the four operations necessary to get out the power of a gas or gasoline engine? 46. What is the engineer's part in bringing about public health? 47. Describe the sewage disposal system of Baltimore. 48. Define a) reinforced concrete, b) unit construction, c) monolithic construction. 49. What is scientific management and give examples of its value? 50. Discuss the nature and importance of the planning department.

Talk About Books

LANDMARKS IN FRENCH LITERATURE. By G. L. Strachey. New York: Henry Holt & Company. 50 cents.

For a survey of the outstanding figures of French literature with an acute analysis of the contribution which each made to his time and to the general mass there has been no book as yet published so judiciously interesting.

THE BURGUNDIAN. By Marion Polk Angellotti. New York: The Century Co. \$1.30 net.

When John the Fearless met Rosamonde de Barbazan the clash of their wills supplied the element of struggle for a story of 15th century France as brimming with life as anything of Weyman's. The turmoil of Paris streets is as vivid as the strife of warring spirits.

AN INTRODUCTION TO MATHEMATICS. By A. N. Whitehead. New York: Henry Holt & Co.; London: Williams & Norgate. 50 cents net.

This charming little book "reads like a novel." The fundamental notions of elementary mathematics up to and including the calculus are presented with a lucidity, brevity, and absence of technical detail that is astounding. But the most interesting feature both to the general reader and to the mathematician is the exposition of the nature of mathematical thinking and of the rôle which it plays in thought in general. The book is written with a freshness of style which is as pleasing as it is rare in a book of this kind.

EVOLUTION. By Patrick Geddes and J. Arthur Thomson. New York: Henry Holt & Co.; London: Williams & Norgate. 50 cents net.

A professor of botany and a professor of natural history have combined to give a thorough survey of evolution in such compass as 250 pages offers. The chapters on the evidences of evolution brought forward by scientists throw light on the sources of man's knowledge of the subject; the chapter on Variation and Heredity is interesting though unduly technical for a book frankly addressed to laymen; the chapter on the social connection with theories of evolution is in itself an interesting evolution.

THE EVOLUTION OF PLANTS. By Dr. D. H. Scott. New York: Henry Holt & Co.; London: Williams & Norgate. 50 cents net.

The president of the Linnaean Society of London has given in this small volume a survey, based on fossil discoveries, of the evolution of flowering and seed and spore plants. While the nomenclature necessarily is difficult, technicalities have been excluded as far as possible and the book is readable even for the uninitiated.

OUTLINE OF A COURSE IN THE PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION. By John Angus MacVannel, Ph.D. New York: Macmillan Co. 90c net.

This "Outline Course," as the author explains, is "a revision and extension of a syllabus in the philosophy of education for some time in use in a class in Teacher's College, Columbia University." It has therefore had a practical test at the hands of its able author, whose ultimate purpose is "to indicate some of the important lines along which educational reconstruction at the present time seems to be

converging, and to suggest a method for the organization of educational ideas." So clear is the author's style, so definite his presentation of ideas that even the reader little versed in philosophic terms, will find his views of education immensely enlarged by a thoughtful reading of this book. It is to philosophy, the mother of sciences that we must turn if we would understand the most significant meanings which the discoveries of Natural Science have to offer. Such books help to solve some of the main questions which human thought is constantly pondering. CHAUTAUQUAN readers whose minds are from year to year being stimulated to look out on this world with the spirit of understanding, will find much in this book to freshen their ideas.

WOMAN'S PART IN GOVERNMENT, WHETHER SHE VOTES OR NOT. William H. Allen. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50 net.

While many people dread to think of the ideas suggested by this title, the fact is that since the days of Deborah, women's men friends have been thankful enough to have her take a hand in untangling many of the problems of existence. It seems now pretty certain that she is about to serve her country in a far more direct and useful capacity than ever. This book, very clear, and often humorous, by an expert in the administration of public business, is like a good atlas and encyclopedia, "something that no family should be without." Mr. Allen speaks with authority. He questions you in a way that makes you sit up and think. He puts telling suggestions that make you realize how little you have thought about your share in our common civic life. He works in bits of experience that inspire us to feel that our own democracy may yet do greater things than these, and he puts facts before us which appeal to our common sense to consider. Note also, all ye woman-kind that the sub-title of this book is "whether she votes or not." Look into this book whether for fifteen or fifty minutes. It is like looking out of a window and seeing a view you've never "taken in" before.

A BRIEF COURSE IN THE TEACHING PROCESS. George Drayton Strayer. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$1.25 net.

Dr. Strayer's "Brief Course in the Teaching Process," is one of the most practical books on the subject that has ever been published. The author not only *tells* how, but *shows* how to teach. The illustrative matter is most valuable, especially in the chapter on Lesson Plans.

Other chapters of especial interest are those on Questioning, The Study Lesson, The Drill Lesson, The Examination Lesson, Moral Training.

The most experienced teacher cannot fail to gain new light from a careful reading of this admirable book.

WOMEN OF ANCIENT ISRAEL. By Charlotte H. Adams. New York: National Board Y. W. C. A. of the U. S. A. 25 cents paper, 40 cents cloth.

Seven studies of Old Testament women fill this useful and interesting handbook. Quotations, suggestive questions, Biblical references enrich a little volume interesting for the student and valuable for the teacher.

IDYLLS OF THE KING. Edited by Charles W. French, A. M. New York: The Macmillan Company. 25 cents net.

To the Pocket Classics series has been added another volume useful both to teacher and to student. Mr. French has supplied an introduction which includes a sketch of Tennyson's life and a description of the "Idylls," and notes which err on the side of too great generosity.

SOCIAL FRANCE IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY. By Cécile Hugon. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$3.00 net.

To most of us Louis XIV in all his vanity and resplendence seems the glittering *all* of the seventeenth century. Cécile Hugon's charming "Social France in the Seventeenth Century" shows from contemporary letters not only the court—of Henry IV and Louis XIII as well as of the "Sun King"—but the clergy, the bourgeoisie and the peasantry in their separate lives and their inter-relations throughout the "Great Century." War and famine, snobbishness, extravagance, religious zeal and worldly splendor all pass in the panorama of the years that were adding to the centralization of power in the king and to the degradation of the lowest in the land that finally resulted in the Revolution. Dress, housekeeping, and education, fill entertaining chapters. Men and women of well-known names are the actors against this background. The book reads easily for layman as well as student.

It is unnecessarily large to the hand, though pleasantly light in weight.

THE CENTURY AND THE SCHOOL. By Frank Louis Soldan. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$1.25 net.

The eight essays assembled under the title, "The Century and the School," were selected from the manuscripts of Frank Louis Soldan, late superintendent of the St. Louis public schools, after his death. In a wide range of subjects the author has shown himself in closest touch with educational problems, and keenly appreciative of the ethical task which the present day demands of the schools: "a hand ready to help, a contented mind, and an appreciation of those

treasures that are higher than life itself." Aristotle's definition of virtue as "a mean between two extremes" furnishes a basis for disposing of all sorts of educational fads. Very practical and helpful is the essay on "Teachers' Duties." "Folklore and Fairy Tales" reveals Mr. Soldan's grasp of the child mind and his skill in using the natural interests of the child "as fulcrums for the spiritual levers by which the child-nature is to be raised to higher culture." The essays are not only definitely helpful, but buoyantly inspiring. They are of decided literary merit and put the reader in touch with a life of culture, experience and high moral purpose.

The print, paper and plain green cloth binding are entirely satisfactory.

ELEMENTARY PLANT BIOLOGY. By James Edward Peabody and Arthur Ellsworth Hunt. New York: The Macmillan Company. 75 cents.

As the activities of plants, animals, and the highest animal, man, may all be grouped under the heads of the nutritive function, of the reproductive function and of the relation of one unit to another; and as young people are more interested in functions than in structure, the authors of this new "Elementary Plant Biology" have made its teachings extend far beyond the vegetable kingdom. The experiments, of which many are suggested, are chiefly with the plants, but many are applicable to the other kingdoms. The book is rich in material for students and of suggestions for teachers, and is by no means an uninteresting book for laymen. Several appendices give valuable information. The book is well illustrated.

CRIME AND INSANITY. By Dr. C. A. Mercier. New York: Henry Hold & Co. London: Williams & Norgate. 50 cents net.

Dr. Mercier is a physician for mental diseases to Charing Cross Hospital and is the author of several books on insanity. His work, therefore, must be accepted as the result of trained thought and experience. To the criminologist it is interesting for its reclassification of crimes; to the psychologist it offers a reasonable definition of insanity—that it is "disorder of the process of adjusting the self to the circumstances and that it is primarily manifested in disorder, not of mind, but of conduct." From Dr. Mercier's point of view crime is such disorder of conduct as is hostile to the cohesion of society. These acts of disorder are examined in some detail as to their origin and usual forms of manifestation.

This book is one of the useful volumes of the Home University Library.

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